UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

LIVING BETWEEN DOUBT AND HOPE:

Teachers' Perspectives on Marginal Teaching

by

©

Eileen Beverley Kaye

A thesis submitted to the faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR of EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

SPRING 2001

National Library
of Canada

Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada

Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada

Acquisitions et
services bibliographiques

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada

Your file Votre référence

Our file Notre référence

The author has granted a non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of this thesis in microform, paper or electronic formats.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in this thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

L'auteur a accordé une licence non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de cette thèse sous la forme de microfiche/film, de reproduction sur papier ou sur format électronique.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège cette thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

0-612-60265-6

Canada

University of Alberta

Library Release Form

Name of Author: Eileen Beverley KAYE

Title of Thesis: Living Between Doubt and Hope: Teachers' Perspectives on Marginal Teaching

Degree: Doctor of Education

Year this Degree Granted: 2001

Permission is hereby granted to the University of Alberta Library to reproduce single copies of this thesis and to lend or sell such copies for private, scholarly or scientific research purposes only.

The author reserves all other publication and other rights in association with the copyright in the thesis, and except as herein before provided, neither the thesis nor any substantial portion thereof may be printed or otherwise reproduced in any material form whatever without the author's prior written permission.

E. B. Kaye

E. B. Kaye
22 Inverness Crescent
St. Albert, AB
Canada T8N 5J3

March 29, 2001
Date Submitted

"If there is any period one would
desire to be born in, is it not the age of
Revolution; when the old and the new
stand side by side, and admit of being
compared; when the energies of all
men are searched by fear and by hope;
when the historic glories of the old can
be compensated by the rich
possibilities of the new era?"

Ralph Waldo Emerson (1837)

University of Alberta

Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research for acceptance, a research thesis entitled *Living Between Doubt and Hope: Teachers' Perspectives on Marginal Teaching* submitted by Eileen Beverley Kaye in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education

Dianne Oberg

Dr. D. Oberg
Department of Elementary Education

Dr. R. de Frece
Professor, Department of Elementary Education

Dr. G. Fishburne
Professor, Department of Elementary Education

Dr. J. da Costa
Associate Professor,
Department of Educational Policy Studies

M Doherty-Poirier

Dr. M. Doherty-Poirier
Associate Professor,
Department of Secondary Education

Dr. L. LaRocque
Associate Professor, Faculty of Education
Simon Fraser University

2001/03/27

Dedication

This work is dedicated to . . .

. . . my children, Shannon and Chris, without whom I would not have known how to bridge the chasm between my past as a child and their futures as adults.

. . . my father, William Richard Preston, a Welsh coal miner by birth and a humanitarian by nature, without whom this book would have no moral foundation.

Abstract

Marginal teaching presents an ongoing, complex issue within the field of supervision and evaluation. This study involved an examination of elementary teachers' perspectives of marginal teaching, that is, teaching performance verging on the unacceptable. Connections were explored between teachers' perspectives and their belief systems expressed through the metaphors, Teaching as Technology, Teaching as Art, and Teaching as a Profession.

The study design incorporated quantitative and qualitative strategies. Mixed methodology allowed for both statistical findings and context-specific understandings. Phase I involved data collection through a mailed survey. Descriptive and inferential statistical analysis followed. The perception of elementary teachers about how administrators should respond to marginal teaching was the dependent variable. This variable spanned five categories: Compensatory, Formative, Normative, Summative, and Disciplinary Responses. Phase II consisted of telephone interviews with selected survey respondents. Latent content analysis followed.

Findings indicated that teachers perceived marginal teaching had a profound negative impact on students. Teachers reported positive and negative effects on their schools as workplaces. Findings also indicated elementary teachers viewed teaching primarily as Art or Profession and not as Technology. Contingent on circumstances, teachers reported supervision and evaluation of marginal teaching should be approached from a formative stance with assistance as a major component.

Teachers described three types of marginal teaching: Flotsam, Jetsam, and Club Med. Flotsam described consciously unskilled teachers. Beginning teachers, teachers

working in a new environment or grade level, and teachers working on new curricula might constitute Flotsam. Jetsam was reported as human debris from the rapid onslaught of educational change, often initiated by bureaucratic mandate, and both expected and accepted as a by-product of this change. The third type of teaching reported was coined Club Med marginal teaching. Indicators cited included unacceptable work ethic and lack of ownership for improvement. Teachers perceived Club Med marginal teaching was self-indulgent and had little connection to students, learning, or the profession of teaching. Teachers were cautiously optimistic about the use of assistance practices in cases of Flotsam marginal teaching, fearful of the uncaring attitude of the educational system in cases of Jetsam, and angry at perceived support of Club Med practices.

Acknowledgements

I would like to recognize the vast contributions that Dianne Oberg has made toward this study. During the course of the work, she has become my flagship, leading me through the storms, and my cohort, travelling with me during the 'uh-huhs' in a journey filled with both hope and despair.

I would also like to thank the other members of my advisory committee Bob, Maryanne, Graham, and Joe who listened, read, and synthesised my work and helped me reach inside myself to discover who I am as a researcher and as a scholar.

Thirdly, I would like to thank the members of my University cohort group who began this journey with me. They supported me when I faltered, and kept the undying belief that we would one-day reach the crossing.

Behind the curtains, there are those who stood by, who knew me before, and who will know me again. I would like to extend heartfelt thanks to:

. . . my husband, Dennis, who was and always will be the wind beneath my wings.
. . . my son, Christepher, who taught me how to find my way through the world of technology.
. . . my daughter, Shannon, who taught me how to never let go of my dream.
. . . my mother-in-law, Lillian, who taught me how to love and be loved.

Finally, I would like to thank the Apostolic Twelve who taught me how to fly. Particularly, Alberta Rose who kept the passion of the research going and filled me with energy to move ahead to meet the next challenge. Thank you for always believing in a better world.

Contents

page

Chapter I 1

INTRODUCTION 1
  Background to the Research: An Alberta Context 3
  Purposes of the Study 5
  Research Question 6
  Constructing Mutual Meaning 7
    Conceptualizing evaluation 8
    Reflections on supervision 9
    Terminology 10
  Significance of the Study 11
  Organization of the Thesis 12

Chapter II 14

LITERATURE: A CRITICAL REVIEW AND SYNTHESIS 14
  Introduction: Belief Systems 14
  Metaphorical Reflections on the Nature of Supervision and Evaluation 15
  Teaching as a Technology 15
    External standards and criteria 16
    Non-participatory performance observations 18
    Student outcomes as teaching quality indicators 18
    Teacher tests as a means to an end 20
    Limitations of the teaching as technology metaphor 22
  Teaching as an Art 24
    Clinical supervision 25
    Peer coaching as horizontal supervision 27
    Mentorship as formative supervision 28
    Teaching portfolios as self-reflective practice 28
    Professional growth models 30
    Limitations of the teaching as art metaphor 30
  Teaching as a Profession 33
    Contextual professional standards 34
    Professional judgement 35
    Contextual alignment in supervision and evaluation 35
    Limitations of the teaching as a profession metaphor 36
  Summary: Complexity Abounds 36

Chapter III 39

RELATED RESEARCH ON MARGINAL TEACHING 39
  Introduction: Marginal Teaching Defined 39
  Bridges' Explorations of Teaching Performance 39
  The International Context 41
  Alberta-Based Studies of Marginal Teaching 43
  Ownership and Culpability 45

Contingency Theory 47
Summary: Synthesis of Previous Findings 49

Chapter IV 51

RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES 51
Introduction: Basis of Design 51
Paradigms 52
Pragmatism 53
Possibilities: Mixed Methodologies 54
Data Collection Process 55
Phase I: Data from surveys 56
Mailed surveys 57
Phase II: Contextual understanding(s) through anecdotes 60
Telephone interviews 62
Data Analysis 64
Phase I: Quantitative analysis 64
Phase II: Qualitative analysis 66
Sampling 68
Sample frame 69
Sample size 70
Variables in Survey Methodology 71
Defining Dependent and Independent Variables 73
Hypotheses 73
Rationale for Hypotheses 75
Pilot Study 76
Timeline 76
Ethical Responsibilities 76
Delimitation 77
Limitations 77
Assumptions and Biases 78
Validity 78
Summary: Rationale Supporting the Research Design 79

Chapter V 81

FINDINGS 81
Introduction 81
Pilot Study 81
Phase I Stages of Analysis 82
Phase I: Reasons for nonresponse 82
Phase I: Tests of reliability 83
Phase I: Respondent profile 83
Pedagogical Impact of Marginal Teaching 85
Impact on students 85
Impact on schools as a workplace 87
Responses to Marginal Teaching 88
Types of responses 89
Awareness of responses to marginality 90

Teachers' perceptions of mentorship and peer coaching strategies 92
Teachers' perceptions about what should be happening 94
Teachers' perceptions of culpability 97
Most supportable responses to marginal teaching 99
Findings Related to Theoretical Framework 101
Phase I: Regression Analysis 104
Disciplinary responses 105
Normative responses 107
Compensatory responses 109
Summative responses 110
Formative responses 112
Summary of Findings from Phase I 113
Phase II: Latent Content Analysis 115
Deconstruction of Organizational Stories 117
Setting(s): Diversity of elementary education in Alberta 118
Plot: Egg carton schools with rice paper walls 120
Point of view: The eye of the beholder 122
Characters 124
Flotsam: Wanting to survive and working at it 125
Jetsam: Bureaucratically inspired marginal teaching 126
Club Med: Where do I sign? 128
Tone: The field of tension 130
Themes: Loss and Control 131

Chapter VI 133

REFLECTIONS, INTERPRETATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS 133
Introduction 133
Theories of Supervision and Evaluation 133
Paradigm Tension: The clash between bureaucratic positivism and teachers' belief systems 134
Moral Tension: The clash between rightness and fairness 136
Conclusions 137
Responses to Marginal Teaching 138
Compensatory responses 139
Formative responses 139
Normative responses 141
Summative responses 141
Disciplinary responses 142
Culpability 143
Conclusions 143
Impact of Marginal Teaching 146
Impact on schools as workplaces 146
Impact on students 147
Purposes for supervision and evaluation: The 'or' to 'and' issue 148
Accountability OR the improvement of instruction through professional development of teachers? 150
Accountability AND the improvement of instruction through

professional development of teachers? 151
Exploring accountability. 152
Conclusions. 154
A Critical Challenge 155

Chapter VII 157

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS 157
Introduction 157
Overview of the Study 157
Purposes. 158
Research question. 158
Methodologies. 159
Major Findings 160
Recommendations 161
Implications for Future Study 164
Summation 166

References 170

Appendix A 184

DESCRIPTORS OF KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS AND ATTRIBUTES RELATED TO PERMANENT CERTIFICATION 184

Appendix B 185

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE 185

Appendix C 192

INTERVIEW GUIDE 192

Appendix D 194

STATISTICAL POWER ANALYSIS: DETERMINATION OF SAMPLE SIZE FOR MULTIPLE REGRESSION AND CORRELATION ANALYSIS 194

List of Tables

page

Table 1: Impact of Marginal Teaching on Students 86
Table 2: Impact of Marginal Teaching on Schools as a Workplace 88
Table 3: Factor Correlation Matrix 90
Table 4: Teachers' Awareness of Responses to Marginal Teaching 91
Table 5: Frequency Scores of Teachers' Perceptions of Mentorship Programs 93
Table 6: Frequency Scores of Teachers' Perceptions of Peer Coaching Programs 93
Table 7: Teachers' Perceptions about Supportable Responses to Marginal Teaching 95
Table 8: Appropriateness of Responses when Considering Culpability 98
Table 9: Teachers' Perceptions of Most Supportable Responses to Marginal Teaching 100
Table 10: Elementary Teachers' Agreement with Common Metaphors for Teaching 103
Table 11: Means and Standard Deviations for Predictors 104
Table 12: Means and Standard Deviations for Demographic Information 105
Table 13: Means and Standard Deviations for Responses to Marginal Teaching 105
Table 14: Regression Analysis of Disciplinary Responses to Marginal Teaching 106
Table 15: ANOVA Results for Predictors of Disciplinary Responses 106
Table 16: Regression Analysis of Normative Responses 107
Table 17: ANOVA Results for Predictors of Normative Responses 108
Table 18: Regression Analysis of Compensatory Responses to Marginal Teaching 109
Table 19: ANOVA Results for Predictors of Compensatory Responses 109
Table 20: Regression Analysis of Summative Responses to Marginal Teaching 110
Table 21: ANOVA Results for Predictors of Summative Responses 111
Table 22: Regression Analysis of Formative Responses to Marginal Teaching 112
Table 23: ANOVA Results for Predictors of Formative Responses 113

List of Figures

page

Figure 1. Phillips' contingency model of supervisory approaches to unsatisfactory teaching. 46

Figure 2. Frequency percentages of teachers' preferred responses to marginal teaching performance. 145

Chapter I

Introduction

As the final dismissal bell rang, I stood and watched while the students streamed out of Mr. Winston's classroom. Their looks were sullen. They did not run for their lockers. They did not chatter happily in the halls. They did not push and shove at each other. There was no lively banter. It was only the second week of classes and Mr. Winston had worked his magic already, as he had for many years before.

This was the beginning of the knowing.

I have never met Mr. Winston. Mr. Winston is a fictional character created to produce a response in the reader—a desire to learn more—a desire to know. Mr. Winston was created to establish the place where the research comes from and to address the question: Why do research? Or more specifically: Why do this research? This research is my journey into marginal teaching—my ever-pressing need to know marginal teaching, to find its pulse, to hear its soul. It is my purpose.

When I entered teaching, I saw the students in Mr. Winston's class. Marginal teaching became the focus of my question: Why didn't anyone do something about marginal teaching? My quest for understanding was founded upon an unrelenting belief that all children have a right to positive pedagogical experiences and that, as professionals and as humanists, it is our responsibility to protect and nurture students. This dissertation is not a culmination; it is a stepping stone.

The formal stages of this restless journey have spanned two decades. Beginning with the simplistic solutions approach of my youth, I first searched my own school. Unsatisfied by the understandings I gained in this limited setting, I was challenged to look outwards. So, through the research literature during my Master's program and in my Master's research project, I explored principals' perspectives of marginal teaching (Kaye, 1996). As I searched, I grew to understand the complexities of marginal teaching. I grew to know the why. I did not find a solution. I did begin to realize that a solution focussed approach to resolving the issue of marginal teaching was a path unlikely to yield the multiple perspectives I struggled to understand.

In my doctoral work, I now set out to examine the complexities of marginal teaching from the perspectives of teachers. What teachers think as well as what they do might be critical factors in understanding marginal teaching. This journey has raised many doubts along the way but it has also left me with hope—the hope that you, the reader, in even starting this journey with me, will travel with these teachers and their students each day to their schools and to their classrooms.

Background to the Research: An Alberta Context

Historically, teacher evaluation in the province of Alberta has varied from an era of decentralized control by school jurisdictions at the turn of the century, through a second phase characterized by the employment of provincial School Inspectors, and into the present period of centralized control. This current focus is envisioned through an Alberta Education Ministerial Order that was adopted in May 1997 by the provincial government and entitled *Accountability in Education: Teacher Growth, Supervision and Evaluation*. Two significant events have taken place that prompted the initiation of this latter shift.

The first of these, an event of crisis, was the Keegstra case (Keegstra v. County of Lacombe, 1983). Criminal charges and disciplinary actions were taken against a teacher in Eckville, Alberta founded on evidence that curricula content being taught focused on a personal view that the Holocaust had not occurred (Duncan, 1984). Miller (1999) reported that this case gave rise to public and political interest regarding the adequacy of teacher evaluation practices. The ensuing call for bureaucratic accountability resulted in the Province of Alberta mandating that school jurisdictions develop teacher evaluation policies. The functions of these policies were to ensure that "the performance of individual teachers and the quality of teaching practices across the province would be evaluated to assist in the provision of effective instruction to students and in the professional growth and development of teachers" (Alberta Education, 1984a, p. 72). This directive established dual purposes for supervision and evaluation of teachers in Alberta: accountability and professional development of teachers.

The second critical event impacting current policy and practice in teacher supervision and evaluation in Alberta was a study undertaken in 1993 to explore the impact of individual jurisdictional teacher evaluation policies developed pursuant to the provincial mandate. Linkages between leadership and teacher evaluation were also sought. This study was commissioned by the Alberta Department of Education (currently known as Alberta Learning) and undertaken by Haughey, Townsend, O'Reilly, and Ratsoy. In the resulting report, *Toward Teacher Growth: A Study of the Impact of Alberta's Teacher Evaluation Policy*, Haughey et al. (1993) recommended that "the use of a single evaluation format to identify incompetence and simultaneously promote instructional improvement should be reconsidered. Instead, policies that are based on the assumption of teacher competence would do much to make evaluation a positive process" (p. 301). Duality of purpose was raised as a major stumbling block to the implementation of supervision and evaluation policies. Subsequently, Alberta Learning (1998) developed policy and guidelines for the review and revision of jurisdictional teacher evaluation policies that included standards for teacher quality. Evaluation practices focusing on teacher growth were also important components of this change. It is yet to be seen if the 'assumption of teacher competence' has addressed accountability concerns that were raised in this landmark study.

These changes in supervision and evaluation policy in Alberta were presented in Alberta Education's (n.d.) policy paper, *An Integrated Framework to Enhance the Quality of Teaching in Alberta: A Policy Position Paper.* This document outlined procedures to be included in aligning revised school jurisdiction policies with provincial policy. The issue of teachers who were having difficulty was brought to the forefront in this document. Superintendents and principals were specifically directed that, should the supervision process result in questions as to the acceptability of behaviours or practices of teachers, it was their responsibility to address these situations. Guided by the principles of fundamental justice and due process, parameters specific to the investigation, diagnosis, and resolution of these issues were established by this position paper. The document focused on remediation of these teaching practices but also included guidelines for employment decisions.

Purposes of the Study

Effectively addressing marginal teaching is one recurring issue, within the field of supervision and evaluation, faced by policy makers, administrators, and teachers. The dual purposes of accountability and professional development have added to this complexity. Differing belief systems that define the nature of supervision and evaluation that educators support might have led to differing concepts of how to address marginal teaching both in policy and practice.

Do teachers support current models of supervision and evaluation when faced with the dilemma of marginal teaching? What does it mean to work with a teacher whose performance is marginal? How do administrative policies and practices that are implemented in schools to address marginal teaching affect colleagues directly/indirectly? How does marginal teaching affect students? Research was needed to examine these questions. McKernan (1996) stated that one outcome of research was "helping practitioners to act more effectively, skilfully and intelligently" (p. 4). It was a goal of this study to strive to reach McKernan's challenging possibility.

Major purposes of this study were:

1. To develop an understanding of the impact of marginal teaching on students and schools as a workplace as perceived by teachers.
2. To provide information for developing administrative and collegial practices which reflect effective responses to marginal performance and improve the quality of teaching in Alberta schools.
3. To expand the theoretical basis of teacher supervision and evaluation focusing on marginal teaching performance.
4. To explore the knowing found in the metanarrative, 'everyone knows what marginal teaching is,' from the perspective of teachers.

Research Question

Given the broad topic of marginal teaching and the concerns outlined above, the research question was stated as:

> What were the experiences and perceptions of teachers when working with professional colleagues whose teaching performance is perceived to be marginal?

Related sub-questions were:

1. What do teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching?
2. How do teachers' perceptions of supervision and evaluation affect support for practices employed by administrators as they work with teachers whose performance is perceived to be marginal?
3. What administrator responses to marginal teaching are teachers aware of?
4. What are teachers' perceptions of culpability?

5. What are teachers' perceptions regarding the collegial practice of mentorship when implemented to address marginal teaching?

6. What are teachers' perceptions regarding the collegial practice of peer coaching when implemented to address marginal teaching?

7. What are teachers' perceptions of the impact of marginal teaching on schools as a workplace?

8. What are teachers' perceptions of the social, emotional, and academic impact of marginal teaching on students?

Constructing Mutual Meaning

Terminology is the bane of writers and readers alike. Often ambiguous and sometimes contradictory usage of terms occurs in social science literature. The field of supervision and evaluation of educational personnel has been fraught with confusion and chaos as terminology has developed a life of its own at the hands of researchers, writers, and practitioners. Particularly relevant to this study was the need to clarify usage of the terms evaluation and supervision as they related to certificated educational personnel.

In searching the literature for definitive distinctions, I found that the descriptors summative and formative were added to both the term evaluation and the term supervision. This has only muddied the waters. For example, reference is made to Sergiovanni and Starratt's *Supervision: A Redefinition* (1993) in which:

> Summative *evaluation* [emphasis added] suggests a statement of worth whereby a judgement is made about the quality of one's teaching. Formative *evaluation* [emphasis added] is intended to increase the effectiveness of on-going educational programs and activities. Evaluation information is collected and used to understand, correct, and improve on-going activity. (p. 292)

As a researcher and writer, I found it necessary to forage further into a clarification of terms while adopting a stance for this study. This quest resulted in the adoption of a definition for evaluation that aligned it with a judgmental process while the term supervision, in this study, was applied to policies and practices that were increasingly characteristic of a professional development model. Discussion of discourse in arriving at these conclusions follows.

Conceptualizing evaluation.

Historically, three major approaches to evaluation of teachers have arisen each founded on a belief system that asked for a search for 'what teaching is.' These areas of emphasis focused on judgmental components but differed in the source and type of data collection that were granted merit. They were:

1. Performance-based evaluation which focused on teaching competencies and teachers' application of these in practice. Competencies included the knowledge, skills, and attributes commonly determined to be necessary for successful teaching. Determination of teaching ability was sought.
2. Outcomes-based evaluation which examined the quality of teaching through teacher examinations and through learning as measured by standardised student tests.
3. Self-assessment practices which involved teachers examining their practices through reflection and through informal assessment of student learning.

The goal of each of these practices was similar—the identification of the quality of teaching through measurement of competence, performance, and/or effectiveness. These categories were not seen as mutually exclusive but were implemented with different degrees of emphasis and were used to formulate conclusions of what constituted good teaching. Medley (1990) defined these as:

1. Teacher competence referred to any single knowledge, skill, or professional value position the possession of which was believed to be relevant to the successful practice of teaching. Competencies referred to specific things that teachers knew, did, or believed but not to the effects of these attributes on others.
2. Teacher performance referred to what the teacher did on the job rather than to what the teacher could do. Teacher performance was specific to the job situation. It depended on the competence of the teacher, the context in which the teacher worked, and the teacher's ability to apply competencies at any given point in time.
3. Teacher effectiveness referred to the effect that a teacher's performance had on pupils. Teacher effectiveness depended not only on competence and performance, but also on the responses pupils made.

For the purposes of this study, these definitions and distinctions were adopted for the terms competence, performance, and effectiveness as they applied to evaluation of teaching. Evaluation was therefore used to describe a judgmental process based on attempts to measure competence, performance, and/or effectiveness.

Reflections on supervision.

The term supervision, as it has been applied to educational personnel, has also worn many disguises. Connotations for the term supervision have covered a span from scientific management to coaching and involved both vertical and horizontal practices. Blase and Blase (1998) concluded there has been substantial disagreement amongst researchers and theorists in the field as to the essential nature of supervision and that the practice of supervision was seen to "often have been one of inspection, oversight, and judgement" (p. 8) rather than a strategy characteristic of a formative professional growth model. Gordon (1997) supported this comparison and further surmised that supervision as a tool for control has historically dominated education.

In a call to rename the field of supervision to address these ambiguities, Gordon (1997) suggested that "considering the negative psychological events that the word supervision arouses in teachers in many schools, it seems that using that word as a banner under which we attempt to introduce collegiality and empowerment invites confusion at best and suspicion and resistance at worst" (p. 118). Gordon proposed the term instructional leadership as a substitute for the long-standing term supervision. In calling for a change in the discourse on supervision, Gordon supported an examination of the field of supervision that viewed it as a collegial enterprise. But, understandings of supervision will likely continue to be multifaceted where strong belief systems form the foundations for theory and practice. And, although these debates have appeared in the literature, for the purposes of this study the term supervision as it related to teaching, was aligned with collegial professional growth models.

Terminology.

Mixed meaning can be avoided in research and writing by the consistent use of vocabulary and an explanation of terminology. In initiating this study, in addition to an understanding of the concepts of supervision and evaluation, the following terms required clarification. For the purposes of this research, the definitions below were utilized:

1. Formative supervision is an ongoing process characterised by professional development strategies in a non-judgemental context.

2. Incompetence, in the Province of Alberta, is the level of professional teaching which does not meet the expected Teaching Quality Standards as defined by the descriptors of knowledge, skills, and attributes in Ministerial Order (#016/97), Section 3, Appendix to the School Act (1994) (see Appendix A).

3. Marginal teaching is the level of professional teaching which cannot be documented as incompetence but borders on incompetence and which necessitates a perceived need for change and/or improvement. It is neither stagnant nor contained within precise boundaries.

4. Practices are informal procedures and strategies.

5. Policies are formal, written governing principles.

6. Principals are school-based personnel responsible for supervision and evaluation of teaching as defined in the School Act (1994), Section 15.

7. Students are children enrolled in Alberta public and separate schools.

8. Summative evaluation is a judgmental administrative practice characterised by performance-based measurement of teaching quality based on standards and criteria.

9. Teachers are certificated personnel responsible for the instruction of students as defined in the School Act (1994), Section 13.

Significance of the Study

At the start of the new millennium, in North America, fiscal exigency issues, a population of teachers nearing retirement, a stagnant employment market, politically motivated accountability, and legislative change characterized the pedagogical ecosystem. Supervision and evaluation of teaching was one thread within the complex organization of education. As Darling-Hammond (1990) stated, "Careful selection and evaluation of practitioners are fundamental to any occupation that seeks to become a profession. The bargain that professions make with society is that only qualified and trustworthy individuals will be admitted and supported" (p. 137). Recognition and employment of effective responses to marginal teaching is a fundamental issue in systemic change.

Meanwhile, the students in Mr. Winston's class are turned off and tuned out. The significance of this study lies in the faces, hearts, and minds of these students.

Organization of the Thesis

This first chapter has offered a general introduction to the research question, the background, and the significance of the study in an Alberta context. Meanings and terminology were also given to clarify constructs.

Chapter II includes a review and synthesis of the literature in the field of supervision and evaluation with a particular emphasis on belief systems that affect the nature of supervision and evaluation. Three metaphors for supervision and evaluation are discussed: Teaching as a Technology, Teaching as an Art, and Teaching as a Profession. Limitations for each of these are presented.

An examination of previous studies of marginal teaching in North American, global, and Alberta contexts is undertaken in Chapter III. Findings and recommendations are reviewed forming a foundation of previous knowledge for this study. Emerging from this, a discussion of the relationship between contingency theory and the field of supervision and evaluation occurs.

Chapter IV describes the specific research procedures used to explore the research question. Pragmatism as a philosophical basis for the use of mixed methodology is discussed. Specific steps in the design and implementation of the study are presented. Delimitations, limitations, assumptions, and biases are also addressed in this chapter, as are the ethical responsibilities of the researcher.

The findings of the study are presented in Chapter V. Quantitative findings are given both as descriptive and comparative data. These findings specifically address sub-questions one to eight of the research question. Qualitative findings are reported through an examination of the narrative elements of the anecdotal stories gathered during data collection. Major themes are also presented in this section.

Chapter VI offers discussion and reflections on both quantitative and qualitative findings. The influence of our belief systems on the nature of supervision and evaluation as it relates to marginal teaching is discussed. Contradictions between paradigms guiding the system of education in Alberta and the belief systems of elementary teachers are explored. Re-examining accountability in light of these findings is also addressed. Conclusions that align with both the findings and the discussions are offered in this chapter.

Chapter VII summarizes the study and presents recommendations and implications for theory and practice.

Chapter II

Literature: A Critical Review and Synthesis

Introduction: Belief Systems

The nature of supervision and evaluation of educational personnel is framed by belief systems through which meaning is constructed. Support for supervision and evaluation policies is limited by these belief systems, as are practices that are implemented in the daily lives of educators. As Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) stated:

> Models in teaching and supervision are much like windows and walls. As windows they help expand the view of things, resolve issues, provide answers, and give the surer footing one needs to function as a researcher and practicing professional. As walls these same models serve to box one in, to blind one to other views of reality, other understandings, and other alternatives. (p. 130)

Walls of blindness surround windows of vision.

In initiating this study, two areas of scholarly pursuit were identified. The first of these was concerned with the paradigms in teaching that described these belief systems. The second area of interest significant to this study was that of the field of supervision and evaluation of teachers with a focus on marginal teaching which in turn gave rise to a need to examine contingency theory in organizational management.

The complexity that was found in these areas of study has led to many avenues for exploration. Restricting these routes of inquiry was necessary and problematic—necessary in that this study needed to be founded within the reality of feasibility and problematic in that doubt arose each time a decision to converge on a particular strand occurred. Yet the journey began; was travelled; and now has reached a point in which a telling of it is necessary.

Metaphorical Reflections on the Nature of Supervision and Evaluation

A metaphor is a device for using an object or concept to suggest a comparison in creating a new perspective on another object or concept. Metaphors guiding supervision and evaluation of teaching reflect "what is valued in the organisation, how roles are construed, and which goals have de facto priority in the management of organizational affairs" (Darling-Hammond, 1990, p. 137). Philosophical paradigms have historical and social contexts and act as contextual maps in pedagogical acts of being with children. Three metaphors have emerged to describe these paradigms: Teaching as a Technology; Teaching as an Art; and Teaching as a Profession. Darling-Hammond (1990) summarized the differences between these metaphors and their effect on the nature of evaluation and supervision in the following manner:

> Teaching as a science [technology] is seen to be characterized by a prescriptive nature where adherence to specified routines and procedures monitored through direct inspection is assumed to produce effective teaching through standard operating procedures. In viewing teaching as an art, characteristics are "personalized rather than standardized" with evaluation involving both self-assessment and critical assessment by others with the assumption that "teaching patterns can be recognized and assessed." Teaching as a profession requires the exercise of judgement about when to apply a repertoire of specialized techniques and theoretical knowledge. Standards are developed by peers and evaluation focuses on professional problem solving based on the assumption that "standards of profession knowledge and practice can be developed and assessed" and will ensure competent teaching. (pp. 141-142)

A synopsis of the links between these metaphors and the nature of supervision and evaluation reported in the literature follows.

Teaching as a Technology

The domination of the positivist paradigm in educational bureaucracies and research that has given rise to the teaching as a technology metaphor was well documented in the literature reviewed. Reflecting this domination, strong accountability models for supervision and evaluation of teachers have emerged. Increased bureaucracy, accountability motivated by fiscal concerns, and standardized testing were cited by Good and Mulryan (1990) as initiating monitoring and evaluation of teachers. This positivist paradigm underlies external standards and criteria, non-participatory performance observations, provincial student achievement testing, and the implementation of teacher tests.

Haughey et al. (1993) described the metaphor of teaching as a technology as viewing teaching as a highly skilled occupation based on "the belief that it is possible to identify, define, and prescribe the skills that comprise good teaching" (p. 3). Oppenheim (1994), in an Alberta study of administrators' role in evaluation, found widespread use of this metaphor. Oppenheim reported that the assumptions underlying the metaphor of education as a technology resulted in the teacher being seen as a technologist and the evaluator as an expert. Oppenheim concluded, "The evaluator is presumed to have a superior knowledge of these technical matters, so that s/he is in a position to judge that the techniques are being appropriately implemented" (p. 22). Summative evaluation models characterized by rating instruments based on externally developed standards and criteria for teaching and supported by early teacher evaluation research have developed from this technological philosophy.

External standards and criteria.

In the field of teacher supervision and evaluation, the term summative evaluation described a model of teacher evaluation characterised by decision-making strategies based on externally developed standards of performance. Comparison of teaching performance data to rating scale criteria obtained through non-participatory observation of instruction by administrator evaluators resulted in a determination of teaching quality. The implementation of externally developed, criteria based summative evaluation techniques indicated support of an accountability model for the supervision and evaluation of teachers.

Rating scales were a documentary artifact of this technological approach to supervision and evaluation. The literature indicated that difficulties in applying rating scales for performance evaluations have been ongoing. Classifying ratings scales as descriptive or judgmental, Harris (1985) reported that descriptive ratings scales measured very limited kinds of teaching practices and that judgmental types of rating scales did not clearly define criteria. Good and Mulryan (1990) reported that the vast array of criteria was problematic to the implementation of summative models of teacher evaluation. Further negative aspects of rating scales reported by Harris were that they often called for broad generalizations, might be beyond the scope of the evaluator's knowledge base, and invited value-laden opinions. The lack of contextual alignment and relevance of assessment forms was further cited by Stodolsky (1990) and Gogowich (1992) as affecting the trustworthiness, fairness, and defensibility of empirical data collected through evaluator non-participatory observation. Establishing common criteria as a foundation for summative evaluation, despite the vast amount of research in this area, has as yet been an unresolved dilemma. Although rating scales showed both convergent and divergent descriptors of teaching, they remained highly subjective despite attempts to reach objective standards. Stodolsky (1990) concluded, "It is not easy to find consensus based on empirical evidence, theory, or values about the characteristics of good teaching or good teachers" (p. 175). Similarly, summative evaluation techniques do not allow for consensus on what constitutes marginal teaching.

Non-participatory performance observations.

Performance based evaluations inspire teachers to perform. Searfoss and Enz (1996) in a study of teacher evaluation in holistic learning contexts, found that although teachers concurred that direct instruction instruments were not valid measurements of their teaching, almost all taught direct instruction lessons during principal observations. Outcomes of this application of a positivistic approach to teacher evaluation included anger, disappointment, feelings of being unappreciated and unvalued despite high ratings, and "missed opportunities for meaningful feedback and collegial discussions about the complex pedagogy of practice" (Searfoss & Enz, 1996, p. 39). Teachers' voices are restricted by the boundaries of positivism.

While the affirmation of teaching quality for excellent teachers with "high performance standards [by] credible evaluators" (p. 66) was found by McLaughlin and Pfeifer (1988) to have great importance for these teachers, Haughey et al. (1993) reported that evaluators perceived that observation situations had been "especially orchestrated for their visit" (p. 2). Principals' voices are also restricted within the walls of positivism. Prior research has indicated that the performance observation might simply be a performance.

Student outcomes as teaching quality indicators.

Problems with attempts to define teaching from a technological perspective and to evaluate teaching on the basis of performance observation have led to examination of other vehicles for assessment. Further attempts to empirically define the quality of teaching have resulted in the application of standardized testing regimes over large populations of students. Glass (1990) described merit reward systems in the United States which included "bonuses for teachers who achieved pupil growth goals" (p. 231). In Alberta public and separate schools, provincially developed tests were mandated for all students at the grades three, six, and nine levels with Provincial Diploma Exams administered at the completion of grade twelve. The interpretation of student test scores through this process became high stakes evaluation for teachers.

Glass (1990), in case studies reviewing systems of evaluation that related teacher performance rewarded through salary raises to pupil achievement, concluded that this process subjects the system to severe stress in that "inferring errors of teaching procedure from students' test performance would be too dubious to sustain any serious interest" (p. 238). Glass reported that these practices were tied to the beliefs and worldviews of those who used them noting, "Student achievement data cannot tell teachers how to teach; such data are not viewed as credible for distinguishing good teachers from bad ones; and data once gathered will tend to be used" (p. 238). Glass's findings questioned the practice of linking teacher evaluation and reimbursement to student test results.

In the literature reviewed, a second concern with the placement of an emphasis on student test scores emerged in the realm of professional judgement and autonomy. Shafer (1990) stated, "Academic freedom may be lost as teachers are forced to 'teach to tests' and standardize all results and achievements" (p. 345). As early as the 1930s, Albert Einstein (1936/1996a) cautioned policy makers that:

> The teacher should be given extensive liberty in the selection of the material to be taught and the methods of teaching employed by him. For it is true also of him that pleasure in the shaping of his work is killed by force and exterior pressure. (p. 33)

Yet in the 1990s, the Alberta Provincial Government led by Premier Ralph Klein centralized control of ever tightening purse strings that funded education and curtailed local governments from levying education taxes. In combination with the regulatory action that allowed schools to receive provincial funding only if they adhered to a common curriculum as defined by the *Program of Studies for Alberta Schools* (1984b) and administered the testing program components, impact on local and school autonomy was profound.

The accountability of provincial student testing and a common curriculum have substantially reduced opportunity to influence the content of education despite a need for contextual considerations, and have eroded professional and local autonomy. In an attempt to offset the effects of these policy changes and in conjunction with these changes, the Alberta provincial government initiated a move to site-based management and decision making. But, external controls may have left schools helpless to do anything but manage by imagination.

Teacher tests as a means to an end.

Still enshrouded in the teaching as a technology metaphor and continuing to be motivated by issues of accountability, teacher tests of competencies have been developed and implemented. The link between effectiveness and competency was sought through the application of these in teacher supervision and evaluation. Darling-Hammond (1990) confirmed this implementation of teacher tests in the United States as "competency tests for certification and re-certification" (p. 18) overseen by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards with a mandate to "launch a professionally controlled certification testing process" (p. 28). Darling-Hammond and Millman (1990) reported that in 1981, seven states in the United States had implemented teacher testing programs for certification, while, by 1990 almost all states had these testing programs. In June 2000, Ontario became the first province in Canada to implement a teacher testing process indicating a growing use of teacher tests to determine teaching quality.

Goals of teaching licensing examinations for beginning teachers implemented in the United States presented by Darling-Hammond, Wise, and Klein (1995, pp. 12-14) were:

1. That a rigorous examination will ensure that there is at least a minimum level of knowledge needed for meeting the profession's responsibility to the public.
2. To ensure that entrants have the knowledge, skills, and dispositions required for making decisions responsibly aligned with the nature of professional practice.
3. Influence professional preparation.
4. Impartial decision making.

In addition to tests for beginning teachers, Popham (1990) described alternate functions of teacher tests to include:

1. Pre-admission screening in teacher education programs.
2. To grant teaching licenses at the end of teacher education.
3. To confirm teaching quality and confer a permanent teaching license on those who have previously been provisional.
4. Career ladder teacher tests and teacher certification tests to bestow special recognition on superior teaching.
5. As a condition for license renewal for incumbent teachers focusing on mastery of basic skills in reading, writing, and mathematics.

Licensing tests, as seen by Darling-Hammond et al. (1995), were effective as motivators for change only within a larger context of educational reform, studies of the face validity of tests were inconclusive, and the ability of a test to describe the complex tasks of teaching was questionable. Criticisms of teacher tests by Popham (1990) were also based on face validity of the tests, the correlation between test questions and testing situations with the realities of teaching. Despite the recent adoption of this form of teacher evaluation in the United States and Ontario, researchers agreed that difficulties were already beginning to emerge.

Limitations of the teaching as technology metaphor.

In a post-modern critique of the application of technological thought in education, Baker (1998) referred to the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards as "another example of misapplying Newtonian mechanism to education" (p. 405). This statement summarized growing scepticism by theorists and social science researchers that the metaphor that viewed teaching as a technology could be supported in educational settings.

Research based on this metaphor has struggled to define the quality of teaching. This apparent need has been held to be crucial to the field of supervision and evaluation. Agreeing that it was difficult to isolate the effects of teacher performance and that there was a lack of instruments that measured most of the important outcomes of education, Medley (1990) concluded that "while the educators, certification agencies, and teacher educators of the country are waiting for the findings of all this research, they have no choice but to continue to try to improve teaching by evaluating teachers as well as they can" (p. 46). Challenging this, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988) asserted that supervision would not improve if we simply tried to do a better job of what we are presently doing. Also, from the post-modern perspective with a lack of support for this technological approach to teacher evaluation, van Manen (1990) stated:

> Pedagogy is neither the theory we have of teaching nor its application. We all know that theoretical scholarship in education does not vouch for pedagogic competence. One may be steeped in theories of education and yet be a poor educator. The meaning or essence of pedagogy does not reside in theory. (p. 145)

Medley (1990) discounted the technological approach as lacking in research correlation with an improvement model of supervision and stated:

> There is no evidence that scores on either type of instrument [pencil and paper teacher tests and/or expert performance observations] have any appreciable validity as measures of teacher competence, performance, or effectiveness. It is therefore highly improbable that any of these programs is effective in improving teaching. (p. 46)

In conclusion, theorists and researchers raised the issue of the compatibility of the teaching as a technology paradigm and the supervision and evaluation of teaching. The teacher as technologist and evaluator as expert paradigm continue to be fraught with difficulties in arriving at conclusive evidence of the quality and effectiveness of teaching.

Paradigm tension was noted in the literature reviewed. Shafer (1990) questioned the practice of "making teaching look more scientific [technological] and controllable" and stated that it is a "harmful conclusion that anyone can teach if they possess a passable knowledge of a subject and are able to emulate the behaviours in the model" (p. 333). In discussing the ambiguity and absence of any standards for summative evaluation of teaching, Shafer concluded, "Creativity and flair can't be standardized. Painting by number has never produced any masterpieces" (p. 337). Wheatley (1997) reaffirmed this concern and reported, "We still think of organizations in mechanistic terms, as collections of replaceable parts capable of being re-engineered. We act as if even people were machines . . . our ideas of leadership have supported this metaphoric myth" (p. 21). The most common conclusion of the literature reviewed was that research findings were inconclusive in defining and measuring teacher quality. These limitations gave rise to a need to explore other possibilities.

Teaching as an Art

In the literature reviewed, the metaphor of teaching as a technology was paralleled by a second perspective on the nature of teaching, a paradigm that envisioned teaching as an art. Teaching as an art was described as recognizing intuition, creativity, improvisation, and expressiveness. A study conducted by Blase and Blase (1998) on the characteristics of principals that influenced classroom instruction found that "good supervisory practices should no longer emphasize control and competition among teachers. Instead, supervision should work toward the development of professional dialogue among educators" (p. 159). This recommendation was indicative of research that envisioned this alternate view of the nature of supervision and evaluation. Self-reflective practice(s), clinical supervision, horizontal evaluation, formative supervision, teaching portfolios, and professional growth plans were characteristic of this metaphor.

Oppenheim (1994) described teaching from the perspective of teaching as an art as a highly individual practice and the evaluator as "being the connoisseur possessing deep and broad understanding of education enabling him/her to appreciate what is happening in the classroom, to communicate this understanding to the teacher and engage in meaningful discussion with the teacher encouraging reflection upon his/her practice" (p. 22). While features of the teaching as an art metaphor outlined by Haughey et al. (1993) included: (a) highly individualistic, (b) dependent on the personal resources of the teacher, (c) dependent on interactions with students both individually and as a class, (d) contextual and historical, and (e) teachers must enjoy considerable autonomy in the classroom. What teachers think, as well as what they did, was given as an important consideration in the teaching as an art metaphor.

The purposes for and nature of supervision and evaluation were affected by assumptions underlying the view of teaching as an art and have given rise to critical, reflective practices. "The substance or matter of evaluation is rooted in the teacher's own practice rather than externally imposed criteria" (Haughey et al., 1993, p. 8). The interaction between performance and effectiveness was contextually analysed through self-assessment practices. Formative supervision and self-reflection were characteristics of this metaphor. Hyun and Marshall (1996) described the nature of reflective practice to include reflection-in-action, reflection-on-action, and reflection-for-action. In describing the practice of self-evaluation, Barber (1990) defined this as a continuous ongoing process consisting of:

1. Identification of current teaching behaviour,
2. Identification of problem areas and strengths, and
3. Implementation and evaluation of new behaviours.

Clinical supervision.

Clinical supervision practices have emerged from the teaching as an art paradigm. Initially developed by Goldhammer (1969) and Cogan (1973), clinical supervision was a model of personnel supervision characterized by: (a) pre-conference observation,

(b) observation, (c) analysis and strategy, (d) post-observation conference, and (e) post-conference analysis undertaken by supervisor/evaluators. The purposes of clinical supervision were to improve teaching and thereby improve school effectiveness, work toward collaborative and innovative pursuit of clearly developed goals (Goldsberry, 1984), and to clarify questions in a non-judgemental and non-threatening environment (Gordon, 1992). The clinical supervision model "done well, requires multiple observations and a coaching relationship, not an evaluative one" (Rooney, 1993, p. 43). It exemplified the improvement model of teacher supervision and evaluation. The assumption found in the clinical supervision model was that "given the information obtained through this process, the teacher will exhibit improved performance" (Duffy, 1997, p. 80).

Clinical supervision was intended to be more than following a sequence of observations and conferences mechanistically. Garman (1990) was concerned with the negative effect that instrumental thinking had had on clinical supervision practices and attributed this to the "commodification of clinical supervision" (p. 202). Goldsberry (1984) offered five characteristics of clinical supervision that might be overlooked in practice: (a) relationship to teacher's goals, (b) cyclical nature, (c) a data based foundation, (d) joint interpretation, and (e) hypothesis generation and testing. Obstacles to implementation of clinical supervision given by Goldsberry were time, readiness, observational skills, and flexibility. Gordon (1992) suggested the development of time strategies, omission of value judgements, and conference planning were practical strategies that would assist in overcoming these challenges. In a critical essay on clinical supervision, Smyth (1985) reported that the poor implementation of clinical supervision was due to a lack of change in how supervision was thought about and not time, money, or training. In supporting this conclusion, Sergiovanni (1982) stated:

> It is really a question of viewing clinical supervision as a process, a way of life, a cultural structure within which one works with teachers, rather than as a technique that mechanically specifies a series of steps through which supervisor and teacher must travel. (p. 7)

The clinical supervision model while explicitly characterized by a collaborative approach to supervision also maintained a hierarchical, outsider as expert, structure.

In the literature reviewed, teaching portfolios and mentorship programs were described as characteristic practices that exemplified this model. Peer coaching was an example of a clinical supervision practice that had taken a horizontal approach.

Peer coaching as horizontal supervision.

The clinical supervision model continued to be founded on a relationship between the evaluator and evaluatee while in peer coaching or collegial partnerships, two or more colleagues worked together to better understand teaching and learning. Joyce and Showers (1995) described peer coaching programs as components of professional development models that focused on teacher partnerships and provide self-reflective, non-judgemental feedback. Voluntary partnerships were built on support, caring, and collaboration. Based on Cogan and Goldhammer's clinical supervision model, these partnerships focused on 'teacher talk' becoming an everyday occurrence in schools. Darling-Hammond and McLaughlin (1995) supported the concept that an organizational culture that valued collegial interactions among teachers promoted the spread of ideas and shared professional learning.

Mentorship as formative supervision.

Descriptions of the characteristics of mentoring indicated that it was similar to peer coaching in that collegial partnerships are formed to foster professional development. Mentorship partnerships were based on an improvement plan in which the leadership of one teacher was utilized in a coaching process to "advise, support, observe, and confer" (Edwards, 1995, p. 73) with a protégé. In *Mentorship Program: A Model Project* (1999), a monograph published by the Alberta Teachers' Association to describe a mentorship program piloted in Red Deer, Alberta, functions of mentoring outlined were (a) teaching, (b) sponsoring, (c) encouraging, (d) counselling, and (e) befriending.

A study by Freiberg, Zbikowski, and Ganser (1997) to determine the effects of formal mentoring found that mentoring new teachers could provide as much professional development for the mentor as for the protégé. Mentors reported that team-building opportunities, observing other teachers, attending conferences, and consulting with peers all added to their positive growth. A further study by Lewis (1999) utilized survey methodologyfound that 58 % of beginning teachers reported that they had been involved in a mentorship team within their first three years of teaching. Protégés in Lewis' study also reported that mentorship programs improved teaching significantly. In formal mentorship programs, mentors shared skills, knowledge, and values that were inherent to teaching with protégés while reviving their own teaching practice. In summary, studies indicated that mentorship programs improved teaching for both mentors and protégés.

Teaching portfolios as self-reflective practice.

In the literature reviewed, a teaching portfolio was described as a self-assessment tool consisting of a collection of information about a teacher's practice. The most frequent purpose given for a portfolio was to add to information about teaching practices and the development of teachers. Wolf (1996) stated, "Portfolios can include a variety of information, such as lesson plans, student assignments, teachers' written descriptions and videotapes of their instruction, and formal evaluations by supervisors" (p. 34). Wolf also reported that, although the contents of the portfolio are determined by its purpose, "Most portfolios contain some combination of teaching artifacts and written reflection" (p. 35). Portfolios were described as both a product and a process.

Van Wagenen and Hibbard (1998), in an essay on the experience of using teacher portfolios, identified the tendency to include only the best work in the portfolio in an attempt to "prove something about ourselves as teachers rather than working to improve our methods of instruction" (p. 27). In an action research project, Bosetti (1996) implemented five stages in the development of teacher portfolios: (a) Defining the focus and intent, (b) creating a statement of beliefs, (c) selecting artifacts, (d) sharing portfolios, and (e) creating a professional development plan. Bosetti found that balanced portfolios, which included lessons that were not as successful and student outcomes and responses that were unplanned for, offered information that allowed for reflection on current practice(s), change, and growth, but were more difficult to construct.

Further problems with portfolios reported by Van Wagenen and Hibbard (1998) included collecting too many artifacts and not meeting often enough to discuss teaching practices. Both Wolf (1996) and Checkley (1996) supported these observations and Wolf cautioned against the teacher portfolio taking on the semblance of a "scrapbook or steamer trunk" (p. 34). Wolf also described the importance of remembering "that the objective is not to create outstanding portfolios, but rather to cultivate outstanding teaching and learning" (p. 37). The literature reviewed suggested that current practices in the use of portfolios might need to be revisited and revised to support their use as a foundation for professional self-reflection.

Professional growth models.

Professional growth models differ from professional improvement models in that the emphasis shifts from the improvement of teachers to growth in teaching. Professional growth plans are a declaration of the direction for this change. Evaluators play a key role in the development of professional growth plans and consult with teachers, facilitate implementation, and review progress. Edwards (1995) described options for professional growth plans:

1. A structured growth component built on the Cogan and Goldhammer clinical supervision model,
2. A collegial partnership component similar to peer coaching activities,
3. A mentorship component,
4. An individual growth component linked to course work, research, or implementation of new instructional programs, or
5. Intensive components to address concerns and assist teachers with serious problems with performance which might result in employment decisions based on non-improvement.

Limitations of the teaching as art metaphor.

Concerns with supervision and evaluation practices that have developed from the teaching as an art metaphor have arisen. A study by Stiggins (1988) focusing on hindrances to formative practices found four themes. Stiggins reported that:

1. Teachers and administrators perceived that evaluators often lack important skills needed to evaluate particularly in the areas of evaluating and communicating skills.
2. There was often insufficient time for both evaluation and follow-up.
3. The processes for linking staff development and teacher evaluation were not clear.
4. Trust in the evaluation system was often lacking among educators.

A further limitation of the teaching as an art metaphor presented by Wise, Darling-Hammond, Berry and Berliner (1987) asserted that "during a time of retrenchment, the teacher evaluation system failed to yield sufficiently comparative data to facilitate decisions about layoffs" (p. 12). Darling-Hammond (1989) noted that it was problematic to attempt to ensure that the fullest possible knowledge base resulted from peer coaching and mentorship practices and not the "idiosyncratic or whimsical preferences of individual classroom teachers" (p. 67). Haughey et al. (1993) stated that there were concerns on how to keep the focus of teacher supervision and evaluation on the development of practice and prevent the imposition of external standards and a return to skill-based criteria. Haughey et al. also noted a need to allow for the inclusion of student, parent, and community voices in the development of shared working knowledge.

The evaluation context found in the teaching as an art metaphor was a culture supportive of ongoing learning, characterized by mutual trust, and rewarded efforts to change and grow, rather than ratings of past performance. The literature reviewed reported that the outcomes of a formative model of supervision are negatively impacted when the evaluation context lacks these characteristics. Da Costa and Riordan (1997) reported trust was a key factor in the supervisory relationship while Joyce and Showers (1995) found that trust and inservicing in observation and conferencing skills were important elements of peer coaching and mentorship programs. Levine (1989) established that a school culture that valued and created opportunity for personal and professional development was the context in which growth could be supported. Barth (1991) summarized these problems with an improvement model in stating:

> Collegiality is nice—but it is extremely difficult to introduce into the persistent cultures of schools. Schools display little collegiality because, like most good ideas in education, it is easier said that done. As we all know enormous risks and frequent costs are associated with observation, communication, mutual visibility, sharing knowledge, and talking openly about the work we do. (p. 32)

This need for a context of growth was seen as necessary to the implementation of a professional growth model of supervision and evaluation (Fenton, Stofflet, Straugh, & Durant, 1989; McLaughlin & Pfeifer, 1988; Schön, 1983).

Findings on the implementation of improvement models also emphasized that time and evaluator overloads were crucial issues in the adoption of this model (Darling-Hammond, 1990; Gogowich, 1992; Joyce & Showers, 1995; Kaye, 1996). Darling-Hammond (1990) concluded:

> Furthermore, experienced and inexperienced teachers are not evenly distributed across schools, nor are incompetent and highly competent teachers. Some schools, due to teacher turnover and seniority transfer policies, have large numbers of both new and marginally competent teachers who require intensive evaluation assistance. These are generally, as well, the schools which pose the most challenging educational problems. Thus, the places in need of the most evaluation resources have—if the principal's time is the only resource—the least available, once it is divided among a larger number of pressing needs. Once evaluation requirements exceed the capacity of the evaluator resources available to meet them, the utility of the process is greatly diminished because insufficient attention means that efforts at improvement are too perfunctory to be effective, and attempts at dismissal are too poorly documented and managed to stand up to scrutiny. (p. 162)

While the metaphor of teaching as an art and its emphasis on formative supervision addressed concerns expressed about the lack of essential criteria and standards found in the metaphor that described teaching as technology and its reliance on a mechanistic approach to evaluation, barriers to implementation of this process are becoming apparent. A third metaphor has arisen that explains the contradictions between the metaphor of teaching as technology, the metaphor of teaching as art, and the day-to-day lives of teachers, students, and principals—Teaching as a Profession.

Teaching as a Profession

Recent writings heralded the emergence of a third metaphor for teaching, Teaching as a Profession. Literature focusing on this third understanding of teaching was not as widespread as writings based on the metaphors that viewed teaching as a technology or teaching as an art. Despite this shortcoming, two themes emerged throughout the literature that were characteristic of this metaphor. The first was the crucial role that professional judgement has in education. The second was the need for contextually developed professional standards.

Darling-Hammond (1990) recognized the emergence of the teaching as a profession metaphor in stating:

> A greater attention to evaluation functions in schools suggests a more professional conception of teaching. A conception in which the need for practitioner competence is recognized, as opposed to one in which teaching work is viewed as the routine implementation of curricula and procedures designed by others. (p. 141)

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) observed that "being a professional has to do with something else besides being competent . . . professionals enjoy privileges because they are trusted. It takes more than competence to earn trust" (p. 48). While ambiguities were found throughout the literature reviewed in the meaning(s) of the term profession, key concepts were discernible that establish this metaphor for teaching.

Characteristics of the teaching as a profession metaphor outlined by Haughey et al. (1993) included: (a) Professional knowledge was embedded in context, (b) professional knowledge was concerned with understanding and insight, (c) professional knowledge formed the basis for teacher decision making, (d) professional knowledge was collaborative rather than individual, and (e) professional knowledge was concerned largely with school based conditions and situations. Oppenheim (1994) described the role of the evaluator in the teaching as a profession metaphor as a leader in a "collective of professional practitioners [where] the evaluator is presumed to possess superior knowledge about professionally accepted norms, and is thus in a position to judge the appropriateness of the teacher's practice" (p. 22). A focus on judgement, context, and the active role of teachers were also indicative of this metaphor.

Contextual professional standards.

A distinction outlined by Haughey et al. (1993) between the metaphor of teaching as a profession and teaching as an art was that professional standards rather than individual understandings of teaching were the expected outcome of supervision and evaluation. Greene (1989) also described professional standards arising from the contextual knowledge of teachers to be a significant component of the teaching as a profession metaphor. Haughey et al. (1993) stated, "From this perspective there is greater emphasis on a shared body of knowledge from which a set of professional standards can be developed" (p. 10). Gogowich (1992) reported that "the principal's role in evaluation [is] facilitated by working collaboratively with very professional staffs

[and] by focusing on school-based goals and objectives" (p. 77). The literature reviewed indicated that a mutual understanding of the uniqueness of the act of teaching in a temporal, physical, and social setting were sought through supervision and evaluation in the belief system that viewed teaching as a profession.

Professional judgement.

In the teaching as a profession metaphor, Haughey et al. (1993) described professional judgement, rather than skills, as becoming the focus of situationally developed standards. Zahorik (1992) proposed that the judgement of a teacher in combining purposefulness which guided teachers and was morally defensible; consistency which aligned behaviours with purpose; and skilfulness which demonstrated proficiency and virtuosity, were a foundation for effective teaching. Zahorik supported a change in supervision practices that recognized the personal, thoughtful nature of teaching and that would lead to deliberative-collegial supervision practices.

The recognition of professional judgement in the teaching as profession metaphor addresses criticisms found in the teaching as technology metaphor. Baker (1998) declared that the lack of the "crucial element of human judgement in this mechanistic [technological] approach" (p. 405) caused it to be inapplicable in an educational context. Baker surmised that although science was aware of the importance of judgement, it was omitted because science did not know either how to measure or how to analyse it.

Contextual alignment in supervision and evaluation.

Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) described the persistent phenomenon of disregarding professional judgement and the context of education metaphorically in stating:

> Human growth is not like rhubarb. It can be nurtured and encouraged but it cannot be forced. Teachers become the teachers they are not just out of habit. Teaching is bound up with their lives, their biographies, with the kinds of people they have become. (p. 25)

In support of the importance of the context of teaching in the field of supervision and evaluation, Fullan and Hargreaves perceived that lack of recognition of this key factor resulted in "simplistic, idealistic approaches to improvement and then to disappointment and disillusionment when they fail" (p. 32). The complex ecosystems of school communities necessitate a more holistic approach to supervision and evaluation.

Limitations of the teaching as a profession metaphor.

Although the literature indicated a growing body of theory supportive of the teaching as a profession metaphor, descriptions of implementation into policy and practice were more limited. Sullivan and Glanz (2000) introduced supervisory strategies based on the teaching as a profession metaphor as did Garubo and Rothstein (1998) who termed this supportive supervision. This form of supervision was a co-operative, mutual effort between supervisors and teachers utilizing problem-solving approaches. Supervision consisted of information sharing, problem identification, management, and ongoing and cumulative feedback. Action research might be found to be a useful tool in understanding the nature of this metaphor as it is within the context of each school and classroom that its true colours will be seen. Key questions remained unanswered.

Summary: Complexity Abounds

In 1874, in opposition to the established authorities of art as defined by the Salon and the Academy, a group of artists including Pissaro, Degas, Sisley, Cezanne, Monet, and Morisot, exhibited their work directly for public viewing. This independent and alternative means of exhibiting was both an act against the academic establishment and the birth of an art movement known as impressionism. The essence of impressionism lays both in its works, focusing on light, vision, and the visible world, and this heroic group of artists (Kapos, 1991). An anomaly arose in the art world in contradiction to the existing paradigm of structure and form. Although reaction to the impressionist exhibition was strong and varied, time gave this new paradigm validity and strength.

The metaphors of teaching as a technology, teaching as an art, and teaching as a profession reveal the assumptions hidden within pedagogical paradigms and belief systems guiding supervision and evaluation policies and practices. The literature reviewed suggested that teaching as technology had long been the dominant paradigm for personnel supervision and evaluation in education policies and practices. Teacher evaluation, in combination with student achievement, has historically been entangled in this technical rational paradigm by the bureaucratic system of education in Alberta. Jardine (1992) implicitly raised the question as to whether:

> Technical-scientific discourse, rather than simply being a remedy to life's difficulties, has rather come to recast the nature of life's difficulties into precisely the sort of thing for which a technical solution is appropriate; that is, life's difficulties are technical problems requiring a technical fix. (p. 117)

Through modernity, improvement of teaching is seen as a deliverable commodity. A premise of modernity is that if marginal teaching is a problem, then a solution can be found. In this study, marginal teaching is not considered a problem with a solution—marginal teaching is considered a dilemma—a dilemma that was approached as being complex with many variables. The goal of this research was not consensus but common understanding as seen through the lived experiences of teachers. There were no clear solutions sought but through this research, knowledge, and understanding might establish a foundation to make choices in the future.

Gage (1989) viewed educational research as an ethical act, as "no mere spectator sport, no mere intellectual game, no mere path to academic tenure and higher pay, not just a way to make a good living and even to become a big shot. It has moral obligations" (p. 10). The moral foundations of this research lay in many directions but one became a guiding vision. As van Manen (1991) stated:

> In all our interactions with children, we are constantly involved, whether we like it or not, in distinguishing between what is good and what is not good for them. (In contrast, educational research is usually more interested in distinguishing between what is effective and what is ineffective). (p. xii)

Practicalities and complexities created chaos. Finding observable indicators of growth, 'measuring' the immeasurable, managing many details and tasks, understanding how people learn and grow, influences on teacher development such as identity, positionality, gender, culture, and school contextual dynamics—these are continual, ongoing issues in the field of supervision and evaluation. As the debates rage on, complexity abounds. Yet, the need to understand marginal teaching was the need to understand what is good and not good for children. It was and remains a moral obligation.

Chapter III

Related Research on Marginal Teaching

Introduction: Marginal Teaching Defined

Within the field of supervision and evaluation of teaching, there are practices that are deemed to be exemplary and those that are questionable. Questionable practices may be those which are not unacceptable but border on the unacceptable. In schools, this is commonly called marginal teaching. For the purposes of this study marginal teaching is the level of professional teaching which cannot be documented as incompetence but which borders on incompetence and which necessitates a perceived need for change and/or improvement. Marginal teaching is neither stagnant nor contained within precise boundaries.

Bridges' Explorations of Teaching Performance

In three studies between 1985 and 1992, Bridges completed landmark research in the area of marginal teaching that explored the nature, detection, roots, and responses to poor teacher performance. Bridges' research, undertaken in California, encompassed a large sample of administrators and their school jurisdictions and was an initial exploration into these issues. A drawback to Bridges' studies was that, although they seemingly focused on marginal teaching performance, the terms marginal teaching, poor performance, and incompetence were used interchangeably and distinctions became blurred. This lack of clear constructs resulted in ambiguities that hampered generalizability of these findings.

The primary purpose of Bridges' studies was to examine the relationship between poor teacher performance and tenure. Bridges (1992) expressed strong concerns about the lack of ownership of teachers and administrators for the problems surrounding marginal teaching performance and stated that "creating a climate for owning and solving performance problems represents a formidable challenge for scholars and practitioners alike" (p. 179). Professional ownership or commitment could be measured by a willingness to allocate scarce personal resources of time, energy, and money to the day-to-day task of working with marginal teaching. Findings also included descriptions of the variability of performance standards and evaluation processes. Bridges' classified administrative responses to poor teacher performance as:

1. Tolerance of the teacher's poor performance,
2. An attempt to salvage the incompetent teacher,
3. An effort to induce the poor performer to resign or to retire early, and
4. A recommendation for dismissal.

Bridges reported that avoidance by supervisors was a common strategy employed as they faced ethical dilemmas and conflicting values attributing this to:

> The inclination of administrators to tolerate and protect, rather than confront, the incompetent teacher is shaped by a combination of situational and personal factors. Two of the most important situational factors are the legal employment rights possessed by the majority of California teachers and the difficulties inherent in evaluating the competence of classroom teachers. The most important personal factor is the deeply seated human desire to avoid conflict and unpleasantness, which often accompany the criticism of others. (p. 20)

Bridges (1990) described evaluation systems in the United States as complaint driven. Specific avoidance responses by administrators reported included tolerance or the use of escape hatches such as transfer to another school, changes in teacher assignment, or reassignment to non-teaching positions. If these options were not available to the administrator, then confrontation of the issue in the form of remediation and removal, if the performance did not improve, or induced resignations and early retirements were reported to be additional administrative responses.

The International Context

Global recognition of the phenomena of marginal teaching was evident in the literature reviewed. In an Australian case study of career and promotional patterns of teachers, issues of compensatory practices employed when coping with marginal teaching were raised by MacLean (1992). Findings included:

> Several [principals] expressed the view that the way in which the Education Department currently seemed to cope with the problem of the incompetent or lazy teacher was to pass them around the school system so that they don't get to do too much damage in any one school, or to post them to a Service Branch position where they wouldn't have direct contact with children. (p. 185)

Bridges (1985) referred to this as the "dance of the lemons" and stated "passing the buck is an all-time favourite game in organizations. When faced with difficult decisions for which there are no completely satisfactory solutions, people have a tendency to shift responsibility for dealing with these situations to someone else within the organization" (p. 21). Bridges also reported on similar practices in Asia. The research reviewed indicated that compensatory responses to marginal teaching were entrenched in an array of education systems.

Brieschke (1986b), in a study conducted in urban schools in the United States, interviewed principals on their role in working with teachers with borderline competency. One conclusion of this study was that marginal teaching did occur. This conclusion was supported in research conducted by Bridges (1992), Gogowich (1992), and Kaye (1996). Brieschke (1986a) stated, "It is the accumulation of small mistakes, such as occasional ineptness, laziness, unpreparedness, poor judgements, etc., coupled with low commitment and morale among teachers, which poses the most pernicious threat to our nation's school children" (p. 249). Brieschke (1986a) suggested that there were five stages of action employed by supervisors in working with marginal teaching.

1. Deployment was the enlistment of colleagues to watch and report back to the principal on the teacher's behaviour.
2. Détente was the stage of bringing the troubled teacher within the society of peers and rallying forces to help solve issues.
3. Determination was the decision by the principal that the range of the teacher's deviation exceeded the boundaries of normative behaviour.
4. Evaluation in which the principal provided documentation and efficiency ratings.
5. Formal dismissal in which the principal took action to remove the teacher from the school.

Brandt (1996) in an interview with Tom McGreal, Professor Emeritus of Educational Organization and Leadership at the University of Illinois, described an assistance track to the professional development model of supervision and evaluation designed to improve instruction through the use of mentorship teams. While Black (1993) discussed the use of classroom observations by principals as "diagnostic windows" (p. 41) that offered information on curriculum, resources, teaching styles, and student achievement and allowed for the initiation of a remediation plan. These writers indicated that both formative and summative responses to marginal teaching could be found in practice.

Alberta-Based Studies of Marginal Teaching

In an Alberta context, my study of the perceptions of principals about marginal teaching performance attempted to focus exclusively on this difficult to define area (Kaye, 1996). This study was undertaken using mailed surveys (n = 200) and telephone interviews (n = 10) of school based principals. Risks to students were found to encompass academic achievement and emotional and social development. In examining the scope of the problem, just over two thirds of respondents reported that they had identified at least one marginal teacher teaching in their schools within the three years previous to the study. Findings indicated that defining marginal teaching was complex yet principals were satisfied that they could recognize marginal teaching performance but were dependent on a subjective perspective of what constituted this determination.

This study concluded that ranges of sources were used by principals in the identification of marginal teaching performance, the most frequent being personal observation by the principal. Factors affecting teaching performance that were rated by principals as having a strong degree of influence on marginal teaching performance were lack of ability, lack of effort, and lack of motivation by the teacher. Compensatory, formative, and summative strategies formed the basis for practices employed by principals in responding to marginal teaching with the greatest philosophical support for formative supervision. These strategies were intervention models that assumed intervention was both necessary and a sufficient condition for the desirable outcome to occur.

Caley (1996) studied the role of principals in Alberta in cases involving teacher termination identifying indicators used by principals to determine unsatisfactory performance. These were reported as career history, teacher attendance, parent concerns, classroom management/student behaviour, environment of the classroom, and organization and planning. Strategies that were reported by principals in monitoring the teacher's performance included teacher-directed plans, principal-directed plans, and extensive documentation. Difficulties with the implementation of these strategies included that "it is sometimes overwhelming for the principal to keep track of all these issues along with the other duties as principal" (p. 38). Avoidance of the problem and isolation of the supervisor were further reported by Caley. Principals in this study reported that other teachers first offered assistance to the staff member experiencing difficulty then withdrew this if they saw no improvement. Jensen (1989) contended that, "these individuals take an inordinate toll upon students, colleagues, and the school organization" (p. 246). The research reviewed indicated that the negative effects of marginal teaching might be widespread in the school community.

Also in an Alberta context, Phillips (1994) undertook a study, utilizing survey methodology, of the forced resignation of teachers for reasons of unsatisfactory performance. Phillips' research focused on teachers identified by their supervisors as exhibiting unsatisfactory performance after a history of decreasing competency and the process of removal of these teachers. Major findings included:

1. A very small percentage of Alberta teachers were forced to resign.
2. Sound and effective supervisory practices could result in the forced resignation or dismissal of teachers whose performance was unsatisfactory.
3. There were profound emotional and psychological effects on both the teachers and the supervisors.

4. Issues of caring and justice emerged as major themes.
5. The supervision of teachers whose performance was unsatisfactory was deemed to have considerable impact on the organizational culture.

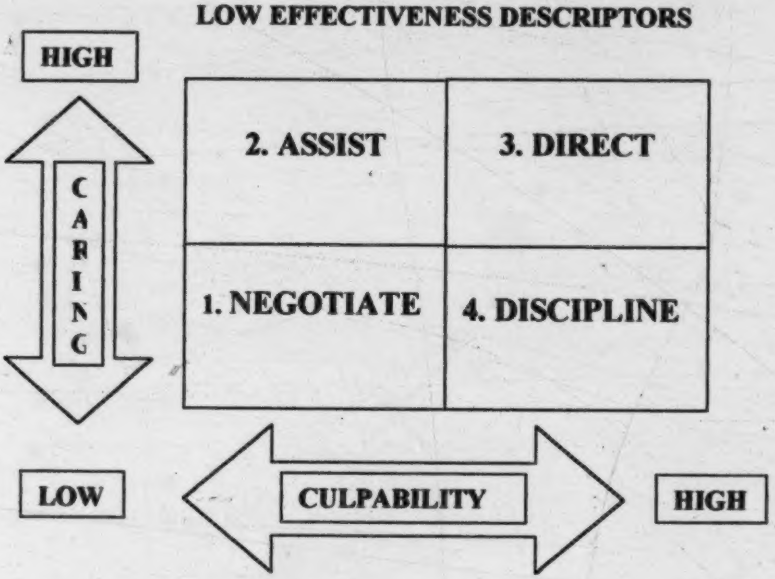
Concerns of Bridges (1992) were echoed by Phillips (1994) regarding "ethical dilemmas for the administrator who may be faced with the problem of developing sufficient documentation while attempting to respect the self-esteem of the teacher" (p. 4). Difficulties faced by the supervisor were discussed. Phillips deemed support from colleagues for supervisors when they were working with teachers whose performance is unsatisfactory as vital. Difficulties faced by the teacher included loss of self-confidence, doubts about abilities, increased health problems related to stress, and isolation of the teacher identified as exhibiting unsatisfactory performance. Withdrawal from any forms of interaction by the teacher was cited as a behavioural indicator of this sense of isolation.

Ownership and Culpability

Previous studies have emphasized descriptions of administrative responses to marginal teaching. Ownership of both the problems of marginal teaching and practices implemented to address marginal teaching were identified as key factors. A second theme that was found within these studies was the debate surrounding the issue of blameworthiness.

Recommendations by Phillips (1994) included a diagnostic model which could be used to assist principals when working with teachers whose performance had been determined to be unsatisfactory. In Phillips' contingency model, degrees of caring [ownership] and culpability [blameworthiness] were used to guide supervisor response(s).

Figure 1. Phillips' contingency model of supervisory approaches to unsatisfactory teaching.


LOW EFFECTIVENESS DESCRIPTORS
HIGH
CARING
LOW
2. ASSIST
3. DIRECT
1. NEGOTIATE
4. DISCIPLINE
CULPABILITY
HIGH

Phillips defined these descriptors to mean:

1. Negotiate was the term used to suggest an approach that helped the teacher realize the adverse effect on students and to explore ways to assist the teacher to move to other types of work.

2. Assist was used to suggest significant time, energy, and resources are invested in an improvement model.

3. Direct was used to suggest the principal would diagnose specific deficiencies then direct the teacher to correct these with a follow up to ensure this has occurred.

4. Discipline suggested strategies involving employment decisions were acted on as expeditiously as possible.

In a paper presented to the Canadian Association for the Study of Law in Education, Anderson (1991) also directed the supervisor's concerns toward culpability or blameworthiness. Anderson suggested that when working with marginal teaching, once culpability has been established, if actions were the responsibility of the teacher then a disciplinary approach should be taken. If the teacher was found to be non-culpable, then assistance should be provided to remediate the problem. Anderson did not clarify how a teacher was to be disciplined for work that was not incompetent. Anderson concluded that rules of natural justice were to be upheld by supervisors with fairness encompassing: (a) The teacher knew the performance standards expected, (b) the evaluations were timely, (c) the teacher received directions for correction of shortcomings, and (d) reasonable time and opportunity was provided to implement the needed corrections. Phillips' (1994) diagnostic model and Anderson's (1991) legal viewpoint supported the examination of contingency theory as it applied to marginal teaching responses.

Contingency Theory

Fiedler's contingency theory (1967), as applied to leadership, holds that there is no best, universally applicable way to lead, but that different situations called for differing leadership styles. The extension of contingency theory to the role and responsibilities of teachers in supervision and evaluation indicated that individual teachers might have distinct views of leadership actions and perceive that there was no best universally applicable way in which supervision and evaluation practices should be implemented. Specifically, teachers might hold various views based on distinct belief systems concerning the way in which principals responded to marginal teaching and the way in which teachers thought principals should have responded to marginal teaching.

Two assumptions were implicit to this theory. First, personality attributes that were stable underlie the leader's motivational system and were classified as relationship or task motivated. Secondly, three situational variables interacted with leadership style: (a) leader-member relations, (b) the task structure, and (c) the formal power position. Fiedler's (1967) theory indicated, if they wished to increase organizational and group effectiveness, not only must leaders be trained more effectively, but also organizational environments must be built in which the leader could perform well. Fiedler extended research in this field to develop the cognitive resource theory, which attempted to explain how key variables such as intelligence, stress, and experience are linked to the contingency theory, and influenced the leadership process. Expanding this further to include teachers in workplaces that are impacted by marginal teaching, intelligence, stress, and experience of teachers might be key variables that influenced their support or lack of support for practices employed by administrators when they were working with marginal teaching.

Hersey and Blanchard (1988) developed the contingency theory into a model of situational leadership. In this model, the maturity level of the group was considered in determining leadership action. The ability and willingness of the group were weighed to decide if the leader's strategies should be task orientated or relationship orientated.

Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon's (1997) developmental supervision model was a further example of the application of the contingency theory found in the literature. In this expanded clinical supervision approach, individual professional needs of teachers were considered, including their current developmental level and the evaluation process that best fit this diagnosed stage of development, from which the supervisor selected the "method of supervision that allowed the greatest growth potential for each teacher"

(Siens & Ebmeier, 1996, p. 303). Thus, the context for supervision and evaluation became an important factor in determining practice.

Summary: Synthesis of Previous Findings

Marginal teaching has been an ongoing issue in education and is currently coming to the forefront as one that needs to be examined, explored, and addressed. Previous studies found that marginal teaching did exist. They also concluded that there was no known set of evaluation criteria that would result in clear identification of marginal teaching yet principals reported that they knew when they were working with marginal teaching. These studies suggested there was a broad scope of responses by administrators to marginal teaching. The dilemmas facing educators in arriving at effective responses were vast spanning humanistic, legal, and practical domains. Other studies showed that ownership, culpability and resources, often defined as a principal's time, were factors in implementation of strategies when working with marginal teaching. Knowledge about the perspectives of teachers in addressing these issues was not evident in the literature reviewed.

Do teachers tolerate a pedagogical system that, in its inaction, views marginality as an acceptable risk? Is there a degree of acceptability along the technological continuum of quality? Plumb (1994) has contended that the "rush to calculate, define, and master their world causes modern subjectivities, at some point, to limit and homogenize reality, to ignore and exclude the divergent and unexplainable, and to treat other people as if they are all alike, for the sake of developing efficient, defensible courses of action" (p.25). In refuting the technological metanarrative, Giroux (1991) has implored us to explore:

> A language of moral and political possibility [that] is more than an outmoded vestige of humanist discourse. It is central to responding not only with compassion to human beings who suffer and agonize but also with a politics and a set of pedagogical practices that can refigure and change existing narratives of domination into images and concrete instances of a future which is worth fighting for. (p. 694)

This study was designed to be cognizant of these issues and to recognize and give voice to the concerns. It was designed to move away from a solutions approach and towards increased understanding of marginal teaching within the complex ecosystem of education. Guiding this design was the compassion that aided it in "transcend[ing] instrumentation to understand what it means to dwell together humanly" (Aoki, 1992, p. 28). If a goal of research is to be a catalyst for change, post-modernity asks that the possibilities be examined.

Chapter IV

Research Methodologies

Introduction: Basis of Design

The bureaucratic system of public education in Alberta has adopted and been guided by a technological approach to development, implementation, and evaluation of policies and practices. Until the 1980s, this quantifiable way of knowing dominated social science research resulting in empirical studies of difficult to quantify, if not immeasurable, factors. This paradigm of modernity was likewise applied in the area of teacher supervision and evaluation and led to a domination of performance based evaluation founded on external criteria measured through observations of teaching performance. Voids have been left in understanding what teaching is about. In the case of marginal teaching, the paradigm of modernity has also failed to reveal what teaching is *not* about.

Old problems demand new ways of looking at them. This research was one of determining both what was and what could be. The research question(s), as stated, required the application of data collection tools and analysis that resulted in both quantitative and qualitative findings. In this mixed model, although carried out in two phases, the quantitative and qualitative approaches had equal status in understanding the phenomenon of marginal teaching. Each design element was seen to be complementary. The use of a combined approach added both breadth and scope to the research and did not limit it to either a positivistic or interpretivistic perspective.

In setting off in the direction of understanding the knowing found in working with marginal teaching, an exploration began. If the bias of this researcher was toward a post-modern perspective in the understanding of marginal teaching, then it is clear that this has been merged with a consideration of the responsibility of the researcher to address the methodology in a manner that corresponds to the research question(s).

The following chapter examines foundations for the use of mixed methodology in research and specific design components of this study. Design decisions are supported and limitations of the study revealed.

Paradigms

Paradigms can be defined as the belief systems or worldviews that guide thought and action. They establish a philosophical basis that underlies action(s). Dual tracks form the foundation for the philosophical basis of educational research, positivism and interpretivism. From these positivistic and interpretivistic belief systems particular styles of methodology have emerged commonly referred to as quantitative and qualitative processes of inquiry. Quantitative and qualitative research, in addition to having differing philosophical foundations, also have characteristics and techniques that make them best suited for some research questions and ill-suited for others. Guba and Lincoln (1989) offered five areas in which positivistic and interpretivistic assumptions could be compared: (a) the nature of reality, (b) the relationship of the researcher to the current research, (c) the possibility of generalization, (d) the possibility of causal linkage, and (e) the role of values in inquiry.

Examining quantitative research more closely, Gall, Gall and Borg (1999) stated that positivistic research was based on the assumptions that:

1. Social reality is objective.
2. Social reality is relatively constant across time and settings.

3. Causal relationships among social phenomena can be viewed from a mechanistic perspective.

4. The researcher can take an objective, detached stance toward participants and their setting.

In comparison, Gall, Gall and Borg (1999) reported assumptions of the interpretivistic belief system as:

1. The participants construct social reality.
2. Social reality is continuously constructed in local situations.
3. Human intentions can be assigned a major role in explaining causal relationships among social phenomena.
4. Researchers become personally involved with research participants, to the point of sharing perspectives and assuming a caring attitude.

From these differing philosophical foundations, two perspectives in research have arisen, quantitative research and qualitative research, which are often considered to be dichotomous. The difference between these becomes increasingly evident during data collection and analysis stages of research. But, amongst researchers, there are also the 'fence sitters,' those that support the strengths of both of these paradigms.

Pragmatism

"Paradigm differences do not require paradigm conflict" (Gage, 1989, p. 7). With this statement Gage introduced pragmatism, a research philosophy that adopted the stance that there were strengths in all research methodologies rather than supporting the arguments that isolated research styles and supported incompatibility, a discourse based on comparative weaknesses. Gage summarized this in stating:

> In short, it was finally understood that nothing about objective-quantitative research precluded the description and analysis of classroom processes with interpretative-qualitative methods. Classroom processes need not be described solely in terms of behaviours or actions, they could also be described in terms of meaning-perspectives. No calamity whatever befell those who studied teaching in the same investigation with both objective-quantitative and interpretative-qualitative methods. Indeed, most of these investigations with both kinds of methods turned out to be more fruitful of insights, understandings, predictive power, and control resulting in improvements of teaching. (p. 7)

In this landmark article, Gage challenged researchers to examine their reasons for undertaking research along with their beliefs and to make wise research design decisions.

Reichardt and Rallis (1994) also discounted arguments that placed quantitative and qualitative methodologies on a dichotomous plane. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) in *Mixed Methodology: Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches* provided an excellent synopsis of the players, positions, and politics of the 'paradigm wars.' The emergence of pragmatism as the paradigm of possibilities guided by a methodological belief in compatibility not incompatibility was noted and arguments supporting the use of a combined methodological approach to research were outlined.

Possibilities: Mixed Methodologies

In arguing in favour of support for the pragmatic philosophy, the use of both quantitative and qualitative research strategies might broaden findings despite the misgivings of Bogdan and Biklen (1982) who stated, "Problems with the two approaches are that they are based on different assumptions" and that "such studies are difficult to do" (p. 39)—common conclusions of supporters of the incompatibility thesis. The perspective of Burgess (1985) did not hold that such a problem existed. Pragmatism promotes and allows for the use of whatever method is most appropriate for a study and does not grant dominance of one over the other. As Borg and Gall (1989) stated, "Both qualitative and quantitative paradigms are legitimate forms of scientific inquiry" (p. 381).

Biddle and Anderson (1986) described the emergence of an integrated perspective to research in the field of education and presented the possibility for the researcher to understand that objectivity and subjectivity were not necessarily linear and dichotomous but were parts of the whole. A combination of the two approaches might well be more superior to either if this combination was aligned with the problem and purposes of the study. Biddle and Anderson developed examples of how research methodology could be designed to reflect this unity. Quantitative data could provide basic research evidence while qualitative data could provide context and deeper meaning. The test is one of applicability to the research question. Neither a quantitative stance, a qualitative stance, nor a collaboration of both guarantees access to knowledge. It is the active and critical mind of the researcher applied in a rigorous environment of deductive and inductive reasoning that can open the door to possibilities.

Data Collection Process

The basis of this ex post facto research design involved a mixed methodology approach. Given this possibility drawn from a pragmatic stance, the research was designed to incorporate both quantitative and qualitative research techniques. For the purposes of this study, a two-phase data collection plan was used. From the realm of quantitative methodology, data collection through mailed surveys combined with statistical analysis was undertaken during Phase I. In addition, Phase II employed qualitative data collection through semi-structured telephone interviews followed by latent content analysis.

Phase I: Data from surveys.

Borg and Gall (1989) reported that surveys are a type of data collection that have a long history in the fields of economics, anthropology, psychology, public health, sociology, and education. Surveys are a form of methodology that applies to research that focuses on representing a large population. Cross-sectional surveys were chosen for this research and were reported to be a specific type of survey in which "standardized information is collected [at one point in time] from a sample drawn from a predetermined population" (Borg & Gall, 1989, p. 418). They offered a snap shot relative to the research question(s). Simon (1978) cautioned researchers that a major disadvantage of cross-sectional method was that there was likely to be considerable variation among the sampling units that has no connection to the variables of interest. Simon suggested that a larger sample size be used to overcome this problem.

Data collection for Phase I employed mailed questionnaires. Information pertinent to the following research questions was sought during this phase of the study:

1. What do teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching?
2. How do teachers' perceptions of supervision and evaluation affect support for practices employed by administrators as they work with marginal teachers?
3. What administrator responses to marginal teaching are teachers aware of?
4. What are teachers' perceptions of culpability of marginal teachers?
5. What are teachers' perceptions regarding the collegial practice of mentorship when implemented to address marginal teaching?
6. What are teachers' perceptions regarding the collegial practice of peer coaching when implemented to address marginal teaching?

7. What are teachers' perceptions of the impact of marginal teaching on schools as a workplace?

8. What are teachers' perceptions of the social, emotional, and academic impact of marginal teaching on students?

Mailed surveys.

Questionnaires are more than a list of questions. "A good questionnaire is difficult to construct" (Anderson, 1998, p. 170). Mangione (1995) stated that careful consideration must be given to the sequence, flow, format and style of the whole questionnaire. The literature reviewed described two broad types of questions: closed-ended and open-ended.

Commonly used closed-ended questions were yes/no questions, multiple choice questions, semantic differential, ranking, and rating scales. Mangione (1995) described purposes for the use of each of these types of questions. Yes/no questions were used when a long list of things within a group occurred and respondents could go through these quickly. Multiple choice questions were used when categories could be mutually exclusive. In describing an object using given adjectives which were opposite in nature, the use of semantic differential questions asked respondents to choose a number between these adjectives that best indicated their choice. Ranking questions required respondents to rank preferences among a group of alternatives. Rating scales were commonly used to determine the degree to which respondents perceived a list of alternatives described a particular attribute. Likert scales were a particular type of rating scale that included degrees of agreement and disagreement.

Open-ended questions could require short, specific answers or longer narrative answers. Problems with narrative open-ended questions that were reported by Mangione (1995) included: (a) Respondents omitting these questions, (b) ambiguity of responses, (c) legibility issues, and (d) inadequate detail. Mangione recommended the avoidance of these types of questions.

Given these considerations, the survey questionnaire for this study was designed exclusively using closed-ended questions. Open-ended questions were reserved for the telephone interview portion of the study during which time probing strategies were used to reduce ambiguity and explore the research question(s). In employing these tools for data collection, the questionnaire for this study was carefully designed to obtain information that was aligned with the research objectives and allowed for clarity and reliability.

The questionnaire also collected descriptive, demographic information about respondents' teaching experience, years of post secondary education, size of teaching staff, current teaching assignment, and gender. Volunteer participants for Phase II of the study were also sought through the mailed survey.

Nonresponse, or the rate of response, is a critical issue in survey research. This is particularly significant in mailed survey research in which control over response is greatly diminished. Fowler (1990) stated that one "likely effect of nonresponse is to bias samples" (p. 46) and reported reasons for nonresponse to include:

1. Data collection procedures did not reach the respondents.
2. Respondents refused to be involved in the study.
3. Respondents were unable to provide data.

A target of 75 % or greater response rate was supported by Mangione (1995) as a standard safeguard against a biased nature of the responding sample and was, therefore, adopted for this study. During Phase I, the effects of nonresponse were diminished by a design frame that included efforts to increase response rate through follow up contact stages and an analysis of reasons for nonresponse. In a review of research utilizing mailed surveys, Mangione concluded that mechanisms for increasing response rate included: (a) a good respondent cover letter, (b) return postage, (c) confidentiality and anonymity, (d) reminders, (e) length of the questionnaire, (f) clarity of instructions, (g) motivation of respondents, (h) incentives, (i) pre-notification, (j) study sponsorship, and (k) aesthetic appeal. Where feasible, these recommendations were incorporated into the Phase I data collection stage of this study.

Survey questionnaires (Appendix B) containing a letter of transmittal explaining the purpose of the research and the ethical considerations involved were mailed to each participant. A follow up reminder was mailed to nonrespondents two weeks after the initial mailing. A second reminder including a copy of the questionnaire was mailed after a further two-week waiting period. A third follow up reminder was sent to nonrespondents two weeks subsequent to this. Thank you cards were sent to all respondents. Reasons for nonresponse were collected from a sample of nonrespondents two weeks after the fourth mailing and are reported with the findings of this study.

Jackson (1988) outlined weaknesses to survey methodology to include issues of validity, causal inference, and probing. Validity is concerned with the degree by which results clearly measured what they were intended to reflect. Causal inference is the degree in which causation could be established by the data. Gall, Gall, and Borg (1999) cautioned that because survey data were based on self-reported information, respondents might reflect unreliable information through limited recall or the desire to report ideal situations as opposed to real situations. Survey methodology does not allow for probing of responses where probing is the extent to which data reflect in-depth study of the research problem. Given these concerns, qualitative data collection and analysis was incorporated into the design of this study during Phase II to reduce the impact of these weaknesses of quantitative strategies on findings.

Phase II: Contextual understanding(s) through anecdotes.

The search carried out in this current study was neither one of finding a definition for marginal teaching nor one of listing characteristics of marginal teaching. This exploration of teachers' perspectives on marginal teaching called for a contextual understanding. It was a journey toward the essence of how it is to be with students and conversely how it is not to be with students, a journey toward the original point of difficulty. Therefore, qualitative methodology constituted the basis for Phase II of the study and was used to gather data pertinent to the main research question:

> *What are the experiences and perceptions of teachers when working with professional colleagues whose teaching performance is perceived to be marginal?*

The objective of Phase II of the research was to develop understanding of the knowing found in the metanarrative 'everyone knows.' This search for the knowing was guided by van Manen's (1990) words:

> Pedagogy does not reside in certain behaviours or actions. If it did, then all we would need to do would be to copy those relevant actions or observable behaviours. But a positivistic orientation tends to confuse pedagogy with what teachers or parents do. It tends to judge teachers almost entirely in terms of the ability to demonstrate certain productivity, effectiveness, or the competencies which are presumed to serve these values. (p. 145)

This perspective was supported by Kurmey (1996) who queried evaluation discussions that focused on teacher behaviour(s) and not on the 'why' of teaching. Kurmey cautioned against misunderstanding that might lead to misperception that in turn might lead to misevaluation.

When a discussion of marginal teaching begins between colleagues, stories abound. It was therefore important to collect, record, and, through critical inquiry, understand these anecdotes. As van Manen (1990) stated, "Often anecdote was information meant for insiders, stuff that for discretionary reasons did not make the written record. Sometimes the anecdote was used to characterize a way of thinking or a style or figure which was really too difficult to approach in a more direct manner" (p. 117). In this study, anecdotes provided accounts of marginal teaching that might be part of oral tradition. They were concrete demonstrations of professional wisdom. This was supported by Fadiman (1985) who perceived anecdotes as "narrative condensations of generally acknowledged truths" (p. xii) whose purpose was to understand possibilities. Fadiman also stated that biographers and historians value anecdotes "for their power to reveal the true character of persons or of times which are hard to capture in any other manner" (p. xxi). Gabriel (1998) stated:

> By collecting stories in a particular organization, by listening and comparing different accounts, by investigating how narratives are constructed around specific events, by examining which events in an organization's history generate stories and which ones fail to do so, we gain access to deeper organizational realities, closely linked to their members' experiences. In this way stories enable us to study organizational politics, culture and change in uniquely illuminating ways, revealing how wider organizational issues are viewed, commented upon and worked upon by their members. (pp. 135-136)

Teachers participating in this study were active participant observers and offered insights otherwise unobtainable. Gabriel (1998) advised researchers that "the requirements of accuracy and veracity" (p. 137) might be relaxed in the collection of stories but that stories are able to "express views and feelings which may be unacceptable" (p. 137). The verifiability of 'facts' inherent in the stories collected is beyond the scope of this research. The participants chose these stories and the truthfulness for their use in this research lies not in their factual accuracy but in their meaning.

Telephone interviews.

Telephone interviews were the means chosen for collecting anecdotes in this study. A semi-structured telephone interview approach allowed for the possibility of in-depth understanding of specific incidents involving marginal teaching. By definition, the interview involved "the collection of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals" (Borg & Gall, 1989, p. 446). Interviews, whether they are conducted by telephone or face-to-face, fall into two major categories: Those employing structured interview techniques and those employing an interview schedule. Jackson (1988) differentiated between these two types of interviews defining structured interviews as those in which the goal was to administer a particular set of questions. In-depth probing in this type of interview situation was limited to some of the questions. Interview schedules, outlining major and probing questions, allowed for greater freedom by the interviewer in exploring responses. Jackson cautioned that both types of interviews must be conducted in a manner in which interviewer bias was avoided and care taken that the interviewer did not lead the respondent. For the purposes of this study, interview schedules were employed.

For Phase II, an interview guide (Appendix C) allowed for a semi-structured approach to guide responses and ensure that reasonably comparative data were obtained. Participants were encouraged to share stories about marginal teaching in which they had a personal experience and that described incidents that exemplified their experiences. Interview guides were mailed to each respondent one week prior to undertaking interviews to allow participants time to think about their responses. Permission of the interviewees was obtained to audiotape the interviews. Respondents were offered the opportunity to read and/or edit transcripts of interviews.

Telephone interviews, as a method of data collection, were undertaken because geographic limitations on the population would be influenced during sampling by alternately designing the study to include face-to-face interviews. Telephone interviews were also employed because the research topic could be considered sensitive in nature and respondents might be hesitant to report information that might be viewed negatively. One advantage of telephone interviews was that they were relatively inexpensive to administer though limited respondents to those who have access to telephones.

Potential errors in the interview situation as discussed by Gall, Borg and Gall (1996) involved response effect or the tendencies of respondents to give inaccurate or incorrect responses. Difficulty in standardising the interview situation to reduce interviewer influence on respondents and the lack of anonymity were also give as disadvantages of interviews. Gall, Borg and Gall state, "The phy[illegible]l presence of the interviewer might increase the perceived threat of questions about sensitive topics" (p. 311) and advise researchers that the use of telephone interviews has been found to reduce this perceived threat. Sudman and Bradburn (1981) reported that response effects were generally largest for threatening questions. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) concluded that the use of telephone interviews decreased interviewer bias; however, the interviewer might still affect the responses verbally. Assurance of confidentiality and maintenance of a neutral stance by the interviewer are important considerations both in data collection stages and data analysis.

Data Analysis

Statistical analysis of the data from Phase I focused on descriptive and inferential analysis. Statistical comparisons of subgroups of respondents were also undertaken. Latent content analysis formed the basis for analysis of qualitative data from Phase II. Stories were explored for meaning and searched for themes and patterns across participants. Analysis was open, tentative, and intuitive.

Phase I: Quantitative analysis.

Statistical analysis was computed with the advice and assistance of technological support through the University of Alberta's Centre for Research in Measurement and Evaluation (CRAME), Department of Psychology, Faculty of Education. Scarbrough and

Tanenbaum (1998) warn researchers, "As methodological techniques become increasingly more specialist . . . methodological and substantive researchers become increasingly distanced from one another" (p. 2). The attempt by this researcher was, armed with knowledge of the fundamentals of applicable statistical analysis, to gain a closer understanding of analytical models. As a student of research, no attempt was made to become an expert in the field of quantitative statistical analysis. Instead a collaborative approach was adopted which allowed for the integration of two levels of specialists' expertise, that of the methodological researcher and of the substantive researcher. Technological expertise was sought at three points in this study:

1. In a review of the survey questionnaire to determine revisions that might be considered in facilitating data analysis prior to piloting the questionnaire.
2. In descriptive and inferential analysis of data from Phase I of the study.
3. In interpreting output from data analysis.

This said, it was and will continue to be necessary for researchers to have a fundamental knowledge of analysis choices and the foundations which guide those choices in order to make sound research design decisions. The use of a collaborative approach did not allow this researcher to rely on the methodologist for design decisions.

Specifically, descriptive, statistical analysis of data collected in Phase I focused on frequency percentages. This was the most appropriate form of statistical analysis since rank ordering of findings was not possible. Also during Phase I data analysis, relationships between variables were sought. As Anderson (1998) stated, "Typically, correlation studies investigate a number of variables believed to be related to an important variable" (p. 111). In this study, inferential statistical analysis formed the basis for testing null hypotheses. Guidelines for choosing appropriate statistical tests were summarized by Tuckman (1994) and aided in the decision to use tests of ANOVA and a stepwise regression model to describe relationships, if any, between dependent and independent variables. First, factor analysis identified the principal components of the dependent variable. Factors derived from the factor analysis were used as dependent variables for the regression analyses. A stepwise regression was computed. An alpha level of .05 was used for all statistical tests. Variables are further defined in the *Variables* section of this chapter.

Differences between groups on the basis of years of teaching experience, years of post secondary education, gender, size of school as measured by the number of certificated teachers on staff, and grade level taught was also sought.

Phase II: Qualitative analysis.

Literature in the field of research methodology discussed a number of different implementation approaches for qualitative data analysis. Approaches outlined by Gall, Borg and Gall (1996) were interpretational, structural, and reflective analyses. Interpretational analysis referred to the examination of the data for themes, constructs, and patterns that could be used to describe and explain. Structural analysis referred to searching the data for patterns inherent in the text, discourse, or events with little inference made as to the meanings of these patterns. Kvale (1996) discussed reflective analysis as using intuition and judgement to evaluate the data. Kvale described analysis as developing the meanings of the interviews, bringing the subjects' own understanding into light as well as providing new perspectives from the researcher on the phenomena.

In the literature reviewed, approaches to analysis included condensation, categorization, narrative structuring, meaning interpretation, and generating meaning through ad hoc methods. Huberman and Miles (1994), in *Data Management and Analysis Methods*, described the establishment of a priori effect matrix in the management and analysis of qualitative data while Lincoln and Guba (1985), in *Naturalistic Inquiry*, supported the use of inductive thinking to draw out emerging themes or categories from the data. Examples of emergent qualitative analysis techniques reviewed by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) included latent content analysis, constant comparative analysis, and sequencing.

In this research, anecdotal stories became vehicles for teachers to express their perspectives on marginal teaching. Latent content analysis of these stories formed the foundation for the analysis of findings in Phase II. Interviews were transcribed and coded. Segments of text were examined for their inherent meaning. Patterns and themes were developed. Stories were searched for words and phrases that gave substance to the underlying experience of working with marginal teaching. Once common themes had been established, following Gabriel's (1998) concepts of multiple uses for stories in research, anecdotes were analysed as narrative constructions. Thirdly, shared assumptions, meanings and emotions were sought. Issues of political domination and opposition were examined as they related to both shared belief systems as indicated through metaphors for teaching and through perspectives on culpability and ownership of marginal teaching issues. Practices, strategies, and actions which teachers supported and might act as precedents for change were also sought.

Lastly, negative case analysis was employed to examine findings that were outside common themes. Negative case analysis is described by Patton (1990) as follows: "Where patterns and trends have been identified, our understanding of those patterns and trends is increased by considering the instances and cases that do not fit within the pattern" (p. 328). Carefully studying the outsiders or the irregularities in findings allowed for modification and adjustment of themes and content areas.

Further analysis also allowed for the consideration of inter-relationships between the findings. Findings from Phase I were compared to findings from Phase II to determine relationships between quantitative and qualitative results. Comparisons were made both for similarities and for contrasts.

Sampling

Sample selection has a critical impact on application of the findings to the research problem. Fowler (1990), Mangione (1995), Vockell and Asher (1995), and Gall, Gall and Borg (1999) are among authors on research methodology who discussed sampling techniques and the strengths and weaknesses of differing procedures. Fowler and Mangione supported the identification of a sample frame during the design stage of a research study. The sample frame was defined by Fowler as "the population that had a chance to be selected" (p. 21). Three general classes of sample frames were described by Fowler as; a complete list of individuals in a population, a group of people who go somewhere or do something that enables them to be sampled, or a multi-stage sampling procedure.

Comprehensiveness, known probability, and efficiency were three criteria significant in evaluating sampling procedures. Sampling techniques discussed by Borg and Gall (1989) included simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling, and cluster sampling. Mangione (1995) reported that random sampling methods were a statistical foundation for generalization to a given population.

Sample frame.

Although it might ultimately be the students that are most affected by marginal teaching, the colleagues of these teachers are also on the front lines. Bridges (1992) acknowledged the under representation of the perceptions of teachers regarding marginal teaching and recommended that "research through the eyes of classroom teachers be undertaken" (p. ix). Supporting this, Gogowich (1992) recommended that "it would be worthwhile to investigate the perceptions of teachers regarding the principal's evaluative role" (p. 81).

Therefore, the sample frame for this study included elementary teachers, defined as kindergarten to grade six, employed by public and separate school boards in the province of Alberta. This decision eliminated teachers employed by private schools, teachers not currently employed in the field of teaching, and retired teachers. Selection bias was reduced in Phase I by the use of random sampling techniques.

In focusing this research on a population of teachers, the research was entering a field with limited previous study and a group of participants that had been left to take a second seat to the 'experts' whether they were researchers, policy makers, or administrators. This study stepped outside the hierarchy of credibility that had been formulated on the idea that the opinions and views of those in power were worth more than those who were not.

Sample size.

The issue of sample size is a function of power, effect size, and alpha level. Cohen (1988) offers the following descriptions of these three parameters. Power is the ability to detect differences if they exist. Effect size is the degree to which the phenomenon is present in the population. Alpha level is the significance criterion that represents the standard of proof that the phenomenon exists and is set *a priori*. When these factors are fixed, sample size can be mathematically calculated. In this study, alpha level was set at .05. Desired power was set at .80.[1] Given Cohen's guidelines for the determination of effect size, effect size was set at $f^2 = .02$.[2] Using the formula $N = \lambda (1 - R^2_{Y.B}) / R^2_{Y.B}$, the minimum sample size was computed as 112 participants (Appendix D).

In this study, it was decided to use the largest random sample that was practically feasible and to cover the geographic span of the province of Alberta to avoid the impact of cluster characteristics that are different from the target population. Subsequently, a randomly selected mailing list of 250 elementary teachers employed by public and separate school jurisdictions was obtained from the Alberta Teachers' Association and was felt to be a comprehensive source for the target population. For Phase I of the study, 200 participants were selected from this list using random sampling techniques based on a table of random numbers. Each participant was assigned an ordinal number to allow for tracking and follow up of nonresponse.

---

[1] Note: This allowed for $ß = .20$. Since Type I errors, false positive claims, were considered more serious than Type II errors, false negative claims, the general seriousness of these two kinds of errors was of the order of .20 / .05 therefore establishing that Type I errors were considered four times as serious as Type II errors.

[2] Note: $R^2 = .13$, 13 % variance of the dependent variable was attributed to the independent variables.

Sampling for Phase II of this study consisted of ten volunteer participants purposively selected from respondents in Phase I who indicated on the mailed survey a willingness to participate in Phase II of the study. Originally, three participants were sought from each of the subgroups who indicated the strongest philosophical foundation in viewing Teaching as a Technology, as an Art, or as a Profession, as indicated by questions on the survey designed to elicit a trend toward each of these paradigms. Due to a lack of respondents who viewed Teaching to be a Technology, these parameters were adjusted between the phases of the study and revised to include five teachers that viewed Teaching as an Art and five that viewed Teaching as a Profession and had the greatest differences between case means on these two areas of the survey.

Variables in Survey Methodology

Borg and Gall (1989) described two outcomes of cross-sectional survey methodology and labelled these two types of knowledge as informative data and information that explores the relationship between different variables. Jackson (1988) termed these types of knowledge descriptive and explanatory. Jackson clarified this distinction in stating "the descriptive study is about what and how many of what" (p. 5), while the explanatory study "is primarily concerned with attempting to understand, or to explain, relationships" (p. 6) and focuses on why. Data can be reported as a normative description of distributions of responses on a single question. If controlled sampling procedures have taken place, the data thus obtained is generalizable to the population from which the sample was drawn. Explanatory research employs surveys which "deal simultaneously with many variables" and "describe the complexity of human behaviour" (Jackson, 1988, p. 32). Comparison of variables might result in developing possible understandings of why behaviours occur.

Information obtained by survey methodology used to explore various relationships between variables can be further categorized. Time-bound association of relationships amongst variables occurs when questionnaire items refer to the same point in time. Time-ordered association is seen when items can be ordered relative to each other and can be used to test hypotheses with cause-and-effect implications. Results of this type of survey indicate possible causal relationships. Vockell and Asher (1995) cautioned the researcher in stating, "The existence of a relationship does not necessarily mean that one of the variables is the cause of the other" (p. 24). Interpretation of findings will not lead to directional, causal relationships.

Simon (1978) and Jackson (1988) defined three types of variables that could be explored in undertaking survey research; dependent variables, independent variables, and control variables. Dependent variables were those variables perceived to be influenced by other variables. Independent variables were those which possibly influenced dependent variables. Control variables were variables that were held constant during the exploration of dependent and independent variables. To this classification Vockell and Asher (1995) added extraneous variables defined as factors that produced uncontrolled, unpredictable impact upon the dependent variable and render ambiguity to the results of research.

Defining Dependent and Independent Variables

For the purposes of this study, the perception of teachers about how administrators should be responding to marginal teaching was the dependent variable (Y). Independent variables (X_n) were defined as:

X_1 = teachers' belief systems that are founded on the teaching as a technology metaphor.

X_2 = teachers' belief systems that are founded on the teaching as an art metaphor.

X_3 = teachers' belief systems that are founded on the teaching as a profession metaphor.

X_4 = teachers' knowledge of administrators' responses to marginal teaching.

X_5 = teachers' perceptions of culpability as a factor in decision making.

X_6 = teachers' perceptions of the collegial practice of mentorship when implemented to address marginal teaching.

X_7 = teachers' perceptions of the collegial practice of peer coaching when implemented to address marginal teaching.

X_8 = teachers' perceptions of the impact of marginal teaching on their school as a workplace.

X_9 = teachers' perceptions of the emotional, social, and academic impact of marginal teaching on students.

Hypotheses

The specific purposes of this present study included exploring teachers' perceptions about strategies for working with marginal teaching that may be implemented in their schools. Indications of the impact of marginal teaching on students and the school as a workplace were also sought. It was predicted that the paradigm from which supervision and evaluation are viewed, the culpability of individual teachers, and the effects of marginal teaching would influence teachers' perspectives about responses implemented to address marginal teaching. It was also predicted that the teachers' knowledge of administrative practices would influence support/non-support for actions.

Restating these conceptual hypotheses in operational terms, the following null hypotheses were tested during this study:

$H_0$1: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and the paradigm from which teachers view supervision and evaluation.

$H_0$2: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' knowledge of administrators' responses to marginal teaching.

$H_0$3: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of culpability of marginal teachers.

$H_0$4: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of the collegial practice of mentorship when implemented to address marginal teaching.

$H_0$5: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of the collegial practice of peer coaching when implemented to address marginal teaching.

$H_0$6: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of the impact of marginal teaching on their school as a workplace.

$H_0 7$: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of the emotional, social and academic impact of marginal teaching on students.

Rationale for Hypotheses

The literature reviewed indicated that there was a predictive potential for support of principals' actions when working with marginal teaching based on the paradigm or belief system which forms an educational platform (Darling-Hammond, 1990; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993). In 1996, my previous study found that principals philosophically supported peer coaching and mentorship programs focusing on formative supervision strategies when they worked with marginal teaching. Trends in recent writings indicated a general positive climate for these strategies and suggested that this might also be the perception of teachers (Freiberg, Zbikowski & Ganser, 1997; Lewis, 1999). Although studies by Bridges (1985, 1990, 1992) and MacLean (1992) indicated the strong use of compensatory strategies by administrators, in my study I found weaker evidence of this occurrence. I also found that the impact on students' academic, social, and emotional development was often negative. In this current study, it was proposed that these factors might influence the perceptions of teachers about what principals' should do about marginal teaching. It was also proposed that knowledge of administrative actions might either benefit or hamper support of those actions.

Grounded in Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory, in 1994 Phillips' found that principals consider culpability and ownership to be key factors in determining a course of action when working with marginal teachers. This suggested a need to examine the link between culpability and teachers' perceptions about principals' actions. This rationale formed the foundation for the examination of the stated hypotheses.

Pilot Study

During the course of this research, a pilot study was conducted prior to beginning data collection utilizing an available sample of teachers. Anderson (1998) noted that an effective way to pilot test a questionnaire was with a group of six to twelve volunteers who, after completing the questionnaire and writing notes in the margins, were involved in a group discussion. Following Anderson's guidelines, this process was implemented to identify potential problems that could arise in undertaking the research. Methodological problems in design and data collection were addressed as a result of information gathered through the pilot study. Results of this process assisted in revising the research design and data collection to reflect possible solutions to shortcomings.

Timeline

Data collection for Phase I of this study began on March 1, 2000 and concluded by May 1, 2000. Phase II of the study began immediately following this with data collection for the entire study completed by June 30, 2000.

Ethical Responsibilities

One role of this practitioner/researcher was "to create the conditions conducive to taking responsibility for the development of understanding" (McKernan, 1996, p. 180). Uncertainty left a threat of unforeseeable outcomes that must be addressed with probity. Van Manen (1990) raised awareness of areas for ethical considerations:

1. Effects on whom the research concerns.
2. Effects on institutions in which the research is conducted.

3. Lingering effects on the actual subjects.
4. Transformative effect on the researcher.

Questions to come must be explored as an ethical act of responsibility. Professional factors that were considered in this research included ethical guidelines found in the Alberta Teachers' Association's *Code of Professional Conduct*. Ethical issues were discussed with a representative of the Alberta Teachers' Association (ATA). Ethics approval was obtained from a University of Alberta Ethics Review Committee.

The researcher assured confidentiality and anonymity of school jurisdictions, teachers, and administrators. Pseudonyms for jurisdictions, schools, and individuals were used throughout the research and will be used in any manuscripts, reports, or presentations arising from it.

Delimitation

This study was confined to elementary school teachers employed by public and separate school jurisdictions throughout the province of Alberta.

Limitations

The data collected were descriptive of a select group of teachers and limited to their experiences, their abilities, and their willingness to relate the essence of these experiences, and my ability to capture this essence through interpretation and summarization.

The selective use of organizational narratives that supported my discourse was an inherent danger during data collection and analysis.

There was a risk of regarding stories shared by respondents as facts or conversely to regard everything as narrative and to lose sight of the importance of their meanings.

Assumptions and Biases

The following assumptions and biases were addressed throughout this research:

1. At the time of this study, the responsibility for the provision of instructional leadership and evaluation of teachers in Alberta schools belonged to principals (School Act, 1994). While teachers were neither responsible for, nor might not be formally trained in the evaluation and supervision of teaching, it was my assumption that teachers were carrying out this role at an informal level. In agreement with this assumption, Natriello (1990) stated, "The evaluation of the performance of individual teachers is performed constantly by students, by parents, by other teachers, and by the general public" (p. 35).
2. A further assumption of this researcher was that the involvement of professional staff in peer coaching and mentorship programs was a two-way mirror and that judgements on teaching competency, performance, and effectiveness became part of this process.
3. It was also my belief that strategies employed by administrators in responding to marginal teaching performance are longitudinal.
4. Finally, it was my belief that marginal teaching results in a strong risk to students.

Given these biases, this study was designed to minimize their effects on the collection and analyses of the data.

Validity

Concerns regarding the validity of this research were addressed by the following considerations:

1. Random sampling supported population validity of Phase I.

2. Nonresponse in Phase I might hamper generalizability. To reduce the impact of nonresponse follow-up steps were incorporated into the data collection stage and reasons for nonresponse were collected.
3. The sensitive nature of this research might have resulted in invalid findings due to evaluation apprehension. To ease this apprehension, anonymity was stressed and concerns of respondents were noted and addressed with professional integrity.
4. The use of two methods of data collection reduced mono-method bias.
5. Fishing and error rate problems could have occurred due to the small sample size in Phase II.
6. The use of open-ended questions, opportunity for participants to read through and comment on transcripts during Phase II, and random sampling in Phase I all served to decrease the effects of researcher bias on the findings.
7. Due to sample size and the degree of volunteerism in Phase II, random homogeneity of the respondents was a threat to validity.

Summary: Rationale Supporting the Research Design

In this study, the adoption of a pragmatic stance resulted in the use of mixed methodology in addressing the research question(s). Application of mixed methodology allowed for determinations and descriptions of what was occurring within unique contexts of Alberta schools while comparison of dependent variables allowed for an exploration of these various relationships.

Cost and generalizability were strengths of this survey research design. The surveys were relatively cost efficient to administer and, given random sampling techniques and adequate response rates, could be the basis for statements concerning larger populations. Specifically, cross-sectional data collection was chosen to support a time certain description of the research question(s).

The use of mailed surveys in Phase I of data collection allowed respondents time to think about their answers and gave the participants privacy in answering questions. Following guidelines developed by Mangione (1995), the use of mailed survey methodology permitted a sample of teachers to participate who were widely distributed geographically. During this study, the mailing format considered the sensitive nature of the research that might have resulted in evaluation apprehension by the respondents and their jurisdictions. This method of data collection supported assurances of anonymity and might have reduced participant apprehension.

In Phase II of the study, deeper understandings of the issues surrounding this research question were sought through the probing nature of the semi-structured telephone interview format adopted. Latent content analysis allowed findings to emerge from the text in an examination of underlying meaning. While statistical comparison of variables in Phase I made possible exploratory comparisons for the purposes of explaining why support for administrative responses to marginal teaching might be relative, content analysis of telephone interviews allowed for in-depth understanding.

Peterson (1998) raised the challenge to researchers of finding connections with practice; rethinking roles, methods, texts and contexts; and, rethinking audience. Examining a multiplicity of vision through coterminous perspectives might result in the possibility of insight. Advancement of knowledge both in the area of theory of supervision and evaluation and practices surrounding marginal teaching might lead to new possibilities.

Chapter V

Findings

Introduction

This chapter reports data from the study. Quantitative data are presented in tables followed by short narrative condensations of major findings indicating both a description of teachers' perspectives about marginal teaching performance and the relationship, if any, between variables as a result of regression analysis. Teachers' anecdotes were analysed as narrative constructions and are reported here formatted as narrative elements.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted prior to beginning data collection utilizing an available, volunteer sample of teachers in a focus group format. Piloting of the questionnaire resulted in the following feed back, information, and changes:

1. The survey took 18 to 60 minutes to complete depending on oral and written comments and feedback offered.
2. Participants greatly supported the use of donations to a charitable organization as an incentive to return the survey quickly.
3. None of the participants in this volunteer group had concerns regarding ethics, or felt the survey to be threatening in any way.
4. Typographical errors were found and corrected.
5. A 'no impact' midpoint was added to Section A.
6. The format on Section B was reported to be confusing and the use of a Likert scale was suggested with a midpoint of 'no impact.'

7. Minor wording changes were suggested on some of the questions that resulted in revising of questions to clarify meaning.

8. A suggestion by a volunteer to mail the interview schedule to respondents about one to two weeks prior to the interview was also incorporated into the final design.

Phase I Stages of Analysis

Statistical analysis of data from Phase I was undertaken with aid of the software program Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 10.0.5) and the expertise of an analysis technologist specialist at the Centre for Research in Measurement and Evaluation (CRAME), Department of Psychology, Faculty of Education University of Alberta.

Four stages of analysis were involved:

1. Tests of reliability.
2. Descriptive analysis.
3. Factor analysis.
4. Multiple regression.

Reasons for nonresponse and findings from each of these stages of analysis follow.

Phase I: Reasons for nonresponse.

200 surveys were mailed to elementary teachers in Alberta with a response rate of 61 % (n = 122). A sample of nonrespondents were contacted to determine reason(s) for nonresponse (n = 11). While some of the teachers contacted gave multiple reasons, the most frequent reported reason for nonresponse was a lack of comfort with the research

topic (n = 6). Other reasons for nonresponse included:

1. Restrictive nature of the use of closed questions (n = 2).
2. Lack of experience in working with marginal teaching (n = 1).
3. Lack of trust in administrators at the school and jurisdictional levels (n = 2).
4. Lack of trust in researcher in guarantee of anonymity and use of results (n = 3).
5. Unwillingness to form and/or communicate judgements as advised by the Alberta Teachers' Association's *Code of Professional Conduct* (n = 1).
6. Teaching assignment not within the parameters of the sample (n = 1).
7. Poorly defined constructs (n = 1).

These findings indicated that self-censorship was a characteristic of nonrespondents in the area of a perceived sensitivity to the research topic. Research apprehension might have occurred despite overt attempts to alleviate these concerns. Homogeneity of nonrespondents was a threat to external validity.

Phase I: Tests of reliability.

Tests of reliability found low standard deviation scores for survey questions 23, 50, 53, and 94. Low correlation to the subset of survey questions with which they had been grouped by the researcher indicated a limited chance that these were related to other questions in their subsets. These findings resulted in the removal of data from these four questions for statistical analysis purposes. All other questions were felt to be reliable sources of data.

Phase I: Respondent profile.

Of the 122 (61 %) teachers who responded to the questionnaire, demographic information indicated that 76.9 % of respondents were female while 23.1 % of respondents were male. The Council of Ministers of Education through the Centre for Education Statistics, Statscan reported that during 1996-1997 there were 32,304 elementary and secondary teachers in Alberta. Of these 67.01 % were female and 32.99 % were male. For comparison purposes, statistics specific to the gender of elementary teachers was not available.

Of the respondents, 42.2 % taught at the Kindergarten to Grade three levels and 57.8 % taught at the Grade four, five, or six levels. Although a higher proportion of upper elementary teachers responded to the questionnaire, regression analysis indicated that this was not an influencing factor in the findings.

The mean number of years of teaching experience of respondents was 14.63 years with teachers reporting from one to thirty-two years of experience. Teachers also reported a mean of 4.65 years of post-secondary education. The Teacher Certification and Development Department of Alberta Learning reported that, in May 1995, the average years of teaching experience of Alberta public school teachers was 14.63 years and the average number of years of post secondary education was 4.73. Again, comparative statistics specific to elementary teachers were unavailable.

Schools at which respondents were employed ranged in size from two to forty-one certificated staff members with a mean of 17.19 teachers.

This profile indicated that the group of respondents encompassed a broad scope of experience, education, and school size. Comparisons to provincial statistics indicated that the sample is representative of Alberta public school teachers on the factors of gender, teaching experience, and post secondary education.

Pedagogical Impact of Marginal Teaching

One of the purposes of this study was to develop an understanding of the impact of marginal teaching on students and schools as a workplace as perceived by teachers. A statistical analysis of survey data expanded current understanding of these effects.

Impact on students.

The impact of marginal teaching on students was examined in three general areas: social, emotional, and academic. Teachers were asked to report on their perceptions of the degree by which students were affected by marginal teaching on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from very negatively to very positively. A choice of no impact was offered. Frequency percentages of responses are reported in Table 1.

All factors studied were reported as primarily having a negative to very negative impact on students. Teachers reported emotional and academic development of students as being the greatest areas of risk. In the area of emotional development, attitude toward school and attitude toward learning were both negatively rated by just over 94 % of teachers. Risk to the academic development of students was reported by nearly 80 % of teachers with a risk to academic effort being seen by nearly 94 % of the teachers. Although overall social development was noted with the least frequency as being a risk factor for students, classroom behaviour was reported to be a strong risk factor with approximately 95 % of teachers reporting this as a negative outcome of marginal teaching. Factors perceived by teachers as being influenced the least by marginal teaching were student attendance at school, school behaviour outside the classroom, and interaction with other teachers, although the range of scores remained greater than a 57 % negative impact.

Table 1
Impact of Marginal Teaching on Students

	Very Negatively		Negatively		No Impact		Positively		Very Positively	
Student Indicators	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Attitude toward school	23	(19.01%)	91	(75.21%)	5	(4.13%)	0	(.00%)	2	(1.65%)
Attitude toward learning	20	(16.67%)	93	(77.50%)	5	(4.17%)	0	(.00%)	2	(1.67%)
Self concept as a student	18	(15.25%)	79	(66.95%)	19	(16.10%)	2	(1.69%)	0	(.00%)
School attendance	6	(5.13%)	67	(57.26%)	42	(35.90%)	1	(.85%)	1	(.85%)
Motivation to learn	22	(18.64%)	86	(72.88%)	8	(6.78%)	0	(.00%)	2	(1.69%)
Compliance with expectations	9	(7.50%)	81	(67.50%)	28	(23.33%)	0	(.00%)	2	(1.67%)
School behaviour	11	(9.57%)	62	(53.91%)	40	(34.78%)	1	(.87%)	1	(.87%)
Classroom behaviours	29	(24.79%)	82	(70.09%)	3	(2.56%)	2	(1.71%)	1	(.85%)
Interaction with peers	3	(2.50%)	66	(55.00%)	49	(40.83%)	2	(1.67%)	0	(.00%)
Interaction with other teachers	5	(4.27%)	66	(56.41%)	42	(35.90%)	2	(1.71%)	2	(1.71%)
Academic achievement relative to grade	14	(12.17%)	92	(80.00%)	7	(6.09%)	2	(1.74%)	0	(.00%)
Marks on teacher assignments	8	(6.84%)	85	(72.65%)	21	(17.95%)	2	(1.71%)	1	(.85%)
Marks on standardized tests	17	(14.17%)	85	(70.83%)	15	(12.50%)	3	(2.50%)	0	(.00%)
Satisfactory completion of grades/courses	15	(12.71%)	83	(70.34%)	18	(15.25%)	2	(1.69%)	0	(.00%)
Successful completion of homework assignments	13	(11.02%)	87	(73.73%)	16	(13.56%)	2	(1.69%)	0	(.00%)
Academic effort	24	(20.17%)	87	(73.11%)	6	(5.04%)	2	(1.68%)	0	(.00%)

Impact on schools as a workplace.

A second area of interest to this study was the impact of marginal teaching on schools as a workplace. Factors studied included workload, parent volunteerism, and school climate. Teachers were asked to report on their perceptions of the impact of marginal teaching on schools as a workplace on a five point Likert-type scale ranging from greatly decreases to greatly increases. A choice of no impact was given.

Teachers in this study reported that they did not consider personal motivation nor parent volunteerism to be greatly influenced by marginal teaching. They did perceive a higher incidence of parent complaints (85.72 %). Resolving parent complaints can be both a drain on the resources of a school and an emotional drain on the staff. Given this, it is surprising teachers reported an increase in both collegiality (78.15 %), congeniality (63.56 %), and, to a lesser degree, job satisfaction (58.67 %) due to marginal teaching.

Specifically, teachers were concerned that students with special needs were more frequently placed in their classrooms (71.43 %), and that their individual workloads outside the classroom had also increased as a result of marginal teaching (74.17 %) with some teachers reporting an increase in class size (43.33 %). Areas in which teachers have less control over outcomes were reported to have been affected more negatively while areas in which teachers had control over their involvement were seen to be less affected. Table 2 summarizes descriptive findings in this area of the study.

Table 2
Impact of Marginal Teaching on Schools as a Workplace

	Greatly Decreases		Decreases		No Impact		Increases		Greatly Increases	
Teacher Indicators	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Your workload outside the classroom	0	(.00%)	1	(.83%)	30	(25.00%)	75	(62.50%)	14	(11.67%)
The placement of students with special needs in your classroom	1	(.84%)	2	(1.68%)	31	(26.05%)	62	(52.10%)	23	(19.33%)
Parent complaints	0	(.00%)	2	(1.68%)	15	(12.61%)	79	(66.39%)	23	(19.33%)
Your instructional course load	0	(.00%)	2	(1.68%)	68	(57.14%)	36	(30.25%)	13	(10.92%)
Your class size	0	(.00%)	1	(.83%)	67	(55.83%)	39	(32.50%)	13	(10.83%)
Your time spent on school activities	0	(.00%)	4	(3.33%)	32	(26.67%)	66	(55.00%)	18	(15.00%)
Parent volunteerism	0	(.00%)	11	(9.40%)	55	(47.01%)	45	(38.46%)	6	(5.13%)
Congeniality	1	(.85%)	3	(2.54%)	39	(33.05%)	70	(59.32%)	5	(4.24%)
Collegiality	1	(.84%)	3	(2.52%)	22	(18.49%)	83	(69.75%)	10	(8.40%)
Your motivation	1	(.83%)	12	(10.00%)	74	(61.67%)	31	(25.83%)	2	(1.67%)
Your job satisfaction	0	(.00%)	5	(4.13%)	45	(37.19%)	61	(50.41%)	10	(8.26%)

Responses to Marginal Teaching

A second purpose of this study was to provide information for developing administrative and collegial practices that reflect effective responses to marginal performance and improve the quality of teaching in Alberta schools. This area of the study examined teachers' awareness of current responses to marginal teaching, their perceptions of the specific formative responses of mentorship and peer coaching, what teachers perceived should be happening in response to marginal teaching, and the influence of culpability on response decisions.

Types of responses.

Factor analysis of data collected on responses to marginal teaching resulted in the identification of five categories of responses to marginality. This process consisted of the application of Kaiser-Guttman and Scree Tests to determine the number of probable factors followed by Image factoring to determine an interpretable solution. The factors that emerged from this analysis were:

1. Disciplinary responses implemented when the need for employment action had been determined.
2. Normative responses that were collective responses of staff members with a goal of achieving growth or change.
3. Compensatory responses implemented to reduce the impact of marginal teaching.
4. Summative responses implemented to judge merit.
5. Formative responses implemented by principals to achieve growth or change.

Reliability analysis found that for each of these five factors the alpha reliability coefficients were:

1. Disciplinary Responses Alpha = .8253
2. Normative Responses Alpha = .7959
3. Compensatory Responses Alpha = .7113
4. Summative Responses Alpha = .7499
5. Formative Responses Alpha = .7870

Table 3 summarizes correlation of these factors.

Table 3
Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	Disciplinary Responses	Normative Responses	Compensatory Responses	Summative Responses	Formative Responses
Disciplinary Responses	1.000	-.147	-.135	.337	.131
Normative Responses	-.147	1.000	.159	.293	-.328
Compensatory Responses	-.135	.159	1.000	-.107	-.081
Summative Responses	.337	.293	-.107	1.000	-.226
Formative Responses	.131	-.328	-.081	-.226	1.000

Extraction Method: Image Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Awareness of responses to marginality.

On the questionnaire, teachers were asked to identify those responses to marginal teaching that they were aware of on a dichotomous yes/no reporting format. Transferring the teacher exhibiting marginal performance to another school was reported in just over 73 % of cases as a response to marginal teaching that teachers were aware had occurred. During factor analysis commonality between this response to marginal teaching and the other five factors was not found.

Teachers reported having greater knowledge of compensatory, formative, and summative practices in responding to marginal teaching than normative or disciplinary responses. Minimizing the placement of students with special needs and reassignment within the school were both compensatory practices that just over three-fifths of the teachers were aware of occurring. Table 4 summarizes descriptive findings of teachers' awareness of responses to marginality.

Table 4

Teachers' Awareness of Responses to Marginal Teaching

	Yes		No	
Practices	n	%	n	%
Transferring the teacher to another school	88	(73.33%)	32	(26.67%)
Minimizing class size of the marginal teacher	49	(40.50%)	72	(59.50%)
Minimizing placement of students with special needs	73	(60.83%)	47	(39.17%)
Reassignment within the school	75	(61.98%)	46	(38.02%)
Informing the teacher of unacceptable practices	75	(61.48%)	47	(38.52%)
Offering professional development activities	84	(69.42%)	37	(30.58%)
Offering assistance from the principal	73	(60.33%)	48	(39.67%)
Offering assistance from consultants	52	(42.98%)	69	(57.02%)
Other teachers offering assistance	78	(65.55%)	41	(34.45%)
Other teachers offering opportunities to observe	46	(38.02%)	75	(61.98%)
Other teachers offering professional support	74	(61.67%)	46	(38.33%)
Purposeful involvement in collegial discussion	44	(37.29%)	74	(62.71%)
Principal directing the teacher to change	80	(65.57%)	42	(34.43%)
Completing a formal evaluation	79	(66.39%)	40	(33.61%)
Recommending dismissal	21	(17.80%)	97	(82.20%)
Counselling into early retirement	44	(36.36%)	77	(63.64%)
Counselling into resignation	28	(23.53%)	91	(76.47%)
Counselling onto long term disability	25	(21.01%)	94	(78.99%)

In the area of formative responses to marginal teaching, informing the teacher of unacceptable practices and offering professional development activities were considered common practices in many schools. Awareness of summative responses spanned the strategies of offering assistance from the principal to the principal directing the teacher to change and the principal completing a formal evaluation in approximately two thirds of cases. Teachers' knowledge of normative responses to marginal teaching was limited to other teachers offering assistance (65.55 %) and professional support (61.67 %). When examining disciplinary responses to marginal teaching, only 18 % of the elementary teachers in this study reported an awareness that a recommendation for dismissal had occurred. More teachers were aware of covert disciplinary actions with just over one third of teachers reporting knowledge of the practice of counselling into early retirement, nearly one quarter that of counselling into resignation and one fifth that of counselling onto long term disability. It is not known if teachers were aware of specific incidences of these responses occurring or reporting a more general understanding.

Teachers' perceptions of mentorship and peer coaching strategies.

This study further examined the formative approaches to supervision and evaluation of mentorship and peer coaching and their applicability as responses to marginal teaching. Findings indicated that although teachers would strongly support mentorship and peer coaching programs in cases of marginal teaching performance, they perceived that they did not have the time to participate in these programs. Table 5 and Table 6 summarize frequency percentages for these two formative strategies.

Table 5
Frequency Scores of Teachers' Perceptions of Mentorship Programs

	Yes		No	
Conditions	n	%	n	%
Being a mentorship protégé improves the marginal teacher's knowledge of curriculum	101	(82.79%)	21	(17.21%)
Being a mentorship protégé improves the marginal teacher's instructional skills	102	(85.00%)	18	(15.00%)
Being a mentorship protégé improves the marginal teacher's attributes related to teaching	75	(66.96%)	37	(33.04%)
Time to assist as a Mentor	40	(33.33%)	80	(66.67%)
Willingness to assist as a Mentor	103	(86.55%)	16	(13.45%)

Table 6
Frequency Scores of Teachers' Perceptions of Peer Coaching Programs

	Yes		No	
Conditions	n	%	n	%
Peer Coaching with a marginal teacher jointly improves knowledge of curriculum	110	(92.44%)	9	(7.56%)
Peer coaching with a marginal teacher jointly improves instructional skills	107	(90.68%)	11	(9.32%)
Peer coaching with a marginal teacher jointly improves attributes related to teaching	94	(83.93%)	18	(16.07%)
Time to Peer Coach with a marginal teacher	41	(35.34%)	75	(64.66%)
Willingness to Peer Coach with a marginal teacher	97	(83.62%)	19	(16.38%)

Teachers perceived mentorship programs as being slightly less likely to improve knowledge of curriculum and instructional skills for marginal teachers than peer coaching programs. Improvement of attributes related to teaching was seen as a significantly lower effect of mentorship than of peer coaching. Teachers might have regarded the ability of an outsider to *influence* change to be greater than the ability of an outsider to *direct* change and that an approach that emphasizes equal professional status to be more effective at initiating growth and change.

Teachers' perceptions about what should be happening.

In examining responses to marginal teaching, teachers were given the opportunity to report what they perceived should be happening. The influence of culpability on responses to marginality was also examined. For comparative purposes, the same factors were measured in examining teachers' awareness of responses to marginal teaching and their perceptions about what should be happening. A five point Likert-type scale was used to gather data. Respondents were asked to identify the degree by which they felt responses should be implemented ranging from never to always. A choice of undecided was given at the midpoint of the range.

Transferring the teacher to another school was reported by just over two fifths of teachers as a response to marginal teaching that should seldom happen and approximately one quarter of respondents reported that this should never happen. Table 7 summarizes teachers' expectations of what should be happening in response to marginal teaching.

Table 7

Teachers' Perceptions about Supportable Responses to Marginal Teaching

	Never		Seldom		Undecided		Frequently		Always	
Practices	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Transferring the teacher to another school	31	(25.41%)	51	(41.80%)	26	(21.31%)	11	(9.02%)	3	(2.46%)
Minimizing class size of the marginal teacher	40	(33.06%)	38	(31.40%)	23	(19.01%)	20	(16.53%)	0	(.00%)
Minimizing placement of students with special needs	29	(24.17%)	31	(25.83%)	21	(17.50%)	31	(25.83%)	8	(6.67%)
Reassignment within the school	15	(12.40%)	32	(26.45%)	39	(32.23%)	29	(23.97%)	6	(4.96%)
Informing the teacher of unacceptable practices	1	(.83%)	2	(1.65%)	1	(.83%)	30	(24.79%)	87	(71.90%)
Offering professional development activities	1	(.82%)	1	(.82%)	3	(2.46%)	38	(31.15%)	79	(64.75%)
Offering assistance from the principal	0	(.00%)	2	(1.64%)	2	(1.64%)	37	(30.33%)	81	(66.39%)
Offering assistance from consultants	0	(.00%)	1	(.82%)	13	(10.66%)	33	(27.05%)	75	(61.48%)
Other teachers offering assistance	3	(2.48%)	4	(3.31%)	18	(14.88%)	51	(42.15%)	45	(37.19%)
Other teachers offering opportunities to observe	2	(1.67%)	7	(5.83%)	25	(20.83%)	45	(37.50%)	41	(34.17%)
Other teachers offering professional support	1	(.83%)	4	(3.33%)	11	(9.17%)	49	(40.83%)	55	(45.83%)
Purposeful involvement in collegial discussion	1	(.85%)	1	(.85%)	16	(13.56%)	58	(49.15%)	42	(35.59%)
Principal directing the teacher to change	1	(.82%)	3	(2.46%)	15	(12.30%)	48	(39.34%)	55	(45.08%)
Completing a formal evaluation	1	(.83%)	4	(3.31%)	12	(9.92%)	45	(37.19%)	59	(48.76%)
Recommending dismissal	6	(5.00%)	31	(25.83%)	46	(38.33%)	26	(21.67%)	11	(9.17%)
Counselling into early retirement	6	(5.00%)	28	(23.33%)	39	(32.50%)	39	(32.50%)	8	(6.67%)
Counselling into resignation	8	(6.72%)	6	(26.05%)	41	(34.45%)	29	(24.37%)	10	(8.40%)
Counselling onto long term disability	26	(22.22%)	35	(29.91%)	39	(33.33%)	13	(11.11%)	4	(3.42%)

Teachers were least supportive of practices that involved compensatory actions. Nearly two thirds of the teachers reported that minimizing class size of the marginal teacher was not a supportable response. These findings are in keeping with those summarized by Table 2 that described the impact of marginal teaching on the school as a workplace. Teachers indicated diverse support for limiting the placement of students with special needs in the classrooms of marginal teachers as indicated by a broader range of responses to this item. Only one half of the teachers felt that this should seldom or never occur with one third undecided and one quarter supportive of this frequently occurring.

Formative and normative responses to marginal teaching were well supported by teachers with a range of just over 70 % to just under 97 % for all factors in these two areas. Formative responses were reported to be slightly more supportable than normative responses with a range of 95.90 % to 96.72 % of teachers indicating that these responses should frequently or always occur. Normative responses occurred within a range of 71.67 % to 86.66 % with overall greater support in the frequently category than in the always group. Formative and normative strategies for working with marginal teaching were those which appeared to receive the strongest support of teachers.

Summative strategies as responses to marginal teaching also had support from teachers. While practices such as the principal directing the teacher to change (84.42 %) and completing a formal evaluation (85.95 %) were frequently or always supported by the respondents, employment actions that might arise from this process showed more diverse responses. These disciplinary responses, whether overt such as recommending dismissal or covert such as counselling into early retirement or resignation, were given seldom and frequent ratings by approximately one quarter of respondents and undecided scores by approximately one third of the teachers. The exception to this was the covert disciplinary practice of counselling onto long term disability which teachers were either undecided (33.33 %) about or did not support (52.13 %) at all.

Teachers' perceptions of culpability.

Culpability in marginal teaching relates to the contingency theory as applied to decision making and addresses the 'it depends' in the complex nature of education. Table 8 illustrates the appropriateness of responses to marginal teaching from the perspectives of teachers. Teachers were asked to assess eighteen factors as to the degree by which they perceived that these factors should affect responses to marginal teaching. They were also asked to declare which of four responses they felt would be the most appropriate for each factor. Choices included:

1. Negotiate: Helping teachers realize they are having an adverse effect on students and counselling them out of teaching.
2. Assist: Investing time, energy, and resources into helping to improve their teaching
3. Direct: Directing teachers to correct specific difficulties, with a follow up to ensure this has occurred.
4. Discipline: Penalizing teachers through the use of sanctions such as letters of reprimand, suspension, or dismissal.

Table 8

Appropriateness of Responses when Considering Culpability

	Negotiate		Assist		Direct		Discipline	
Factors	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Unusually difficult teaching assignment	4	(3.33%)	112	(93.33%)	4	(3.33%)	0	(.00%)
Amount of experience with the teaching assignment	1	(.88%)	101	(89.38%)	11	(9.73%)	0	(.00%)
Lack of ability	24	(20.17%)	53	(44.54%)	39	(32.77%)	3	(2.52%)
Lack of effort	14	(11.97%)	20	(17.09%)	67	(57.26%)	16	(13.68%)
Lack of motivation	27	(23.08%)	34	(29.06%)	49	(41.88%)	7	(5.98%)
Lack of communication skills	6	(5.00%)	93	(77.50%)	19	(15.83%)	2	(1.67%)
Lack of flexibility	13	(10.92%)	53	(44.54%)	50	(42.02%)	3	(2.52%)
Lack of ability to relate to age of students	18	(15.13%)	76	(63.87%)	24	(20.17%)	1	(.84%)
Inappropraite or questionable motivation	20	(17.24%)	34	(29.31%)	44	(37.93%)	18	(15.52%)
Language or cultural factors	9	(7.56%)	94	(78.99%)	15	(12.61%)	1	(.84%)
Not open to feedback	24	(20.69%)	17	(14.66%)	55	(47.41%)	20	(17.24%)
Non-improvement after assistance is offered	27	(22.31%)	2	(1.65%)	48	(39.67%)	44	(36.36%)
Non-improvement after being directed to do so	21	(18.58%)	10	(8.85%)	9	(7.96%)	73	(64.60%)
Personal Disorder: Alcoholism	23	(19.33%)	27	(22.69%)	25	(21.01%)	44	(36.97%)
Personal Disorder: Drug Use	21	(17.50%)	26	(21.67%)	22	(18.33%)	51	(42.50%)
Personal Disorder: Illness	30	(26.32%)	69	(60.53%)	14	(12.28%)	1	(.88%)
Personal Disorder: Job related stress	22	(19.13%)	77	(66.96%)	15	(13.04%)	1	(.87%)
Personal Disorder: Emotional distress	24	(20.69%)	75	(64.66%)	16	(13.79%)	1	(.86%)

Teachers in this study clearly perceived that assisting with teaching performance was the most appropriate response in half of the factors given. Directing the teacher to change was reported to be the most appropriate response when there was evidence of a lack of effort. Direct culpability of the teacher, as indicated when discipline was perceived as the most appropriate action, was expressed by nearly two thirds of the teachers on only one of the factors, that of non-improvement after being directed to do so. Negotiating was not perceived to be a suitable response to marginal teaching and was reported as appropriate by only about one fifth of teachers in six of the factors. This finding is in agreement with previously reported findings on the use of covert disciplinary strategies.

Lack of ability, lack of motivation, lack of flexibility, inappropriate or questionable motivation, and not open to feedback were factors where broader ranges of findings were discernible. In these cases, there was an array of support for negotiating, assisting, and directing. When considering personal disorders, some teachers perceived that alcoholism (36.97 %) and drug use (42.50 %) were reasons for disciplinary action while the remainder of teachers indicated support for negotiating, assisting, or directing in these cases. Teachers felt that illness, job related stress, and emotional distress should be areas in which assistance was offered.

Most supportable responses to marginal teaching.

In a final examination of responses to marginal teaching performance, teachers were asked to choose five responses to marginal teaching that they perceived should be occurring. Responses were then assigned to yes/no categories according to whether or not they had been chosen and frequency counts and percentages calculated. Table 9 reports findings of the five most supportable responses to marginal teaching as perceived by teachers.

Table 9
Teachers' Perceptions of Most Supportable Responses to Marginal Teaching

	No		Yes	
Practices	n	%	n	%
Transferring the teacher to another school	113	(95.76%)	5	(4.24%)
Minimizing class size	108	(91.53%)	10	(8.47%)
Minimiziing placement of students with special needs	102	(86.44%)	16	(13.56%)
Reassignment within the school	107	(90.68%)	11	(9.32%)
Informing the teacher of unacceptable practices	24	(20.34%)	94	(79.66%)
Offering professional development activities	27	(22.88%)	91	(77.12%)
Offering assistance from the principal	46	(38.98%)	72	(61.02%)
Offering assistance from consultants	62	(52.54%)	56	(47.46%)
Other teachers offering assistance	67	(56.78%)	51	(43.22%)
Other teachers offering opportunites to observe	94	(80.34%)	23	(19.66%)
Other teachers offering professional support	80	(67.80%)	38	(32.20%)
Purposeful involvement in collegial discussion	92	(77.97%)	26	(22.03%)
Principals directing the teacher to change	85	(72.03%)	33	(27.97%)
Completing a formal evaluation	80	(67.80%)	38	(32.20%)
Recommending dismissal	108	(91.53%)	10	(8.47%)
Counselling into early retirement	112	(94.92%)	6	(5.08%)
Counselling into resignation	110	(93.22%)	8	(6.78%)
Counselling onto long term disability	118	(100.00%)	0	(.00%)

Two of these findings are singularly noteworthy. First, 100 % of respondents did not choose the covert disciplinary strategy of counselling onto long term disability to be one of their top five responses to marginal teaching. Also, despite findings that indicated teachers perceived formal evaluation to be an important response to marginal teaching, only 32.2 % of teachers ranked this within their top five choices. The five most often supported responses to marginal teaching were:

1. Informing the teacher of unacceptable practices.
2. Offering professional development activities.
3. Offering assistance from the principal.
4. Offering assistance from consultants.
5. Other teachers offering assistance.

Of these factors, all can be framed as assisting in nature.

The five least often supported factors were:

1. Counselling onto long term disability.
2. Transferring the teacher to another school.
3. Counselling into early retirement.
4. Counselling into resignation.
5. Recommending dismissal and minimizing class size. (Note: scores were equal).

Of these factors three can be considered to be covert disciplinary responses to marginal teaching. Compensatory responses also received limited support by teachers.

Findings Related to Theoretical Framework

A third purpose of this study was to expand the theoretical basis for social science theories of teacher supervision and evaluation focusing on marginal teaching performance. The theoretical literature reviewed discussed the connections between belief systems and the nature of supervision and evaluation. A review of three paradigms was undertaken: Teaching as Technology, Teaching as Art, and Teaching as Profession. The way in which each of these defined and characterized supervision and evaluation was described in Chapter II.

During the study, respondents were asked to indicate on Likert-type scales the degree by which they agreed with pedagogical statements concerning learning, instruction, students' assessment, classroom management, students' motivation, and differentiation of instruction. Ranges on this five-point scale encompassed strongly disagree to strongly agree with a neutral midpoint. Nominal values of one to five were assigned to each category for analysis purposes.

Of the teachers surveyed, just over 47 % indicated stronger support for statements that characterized the metaphor of Teaching as a Profession while just over 40 % indicated strongest beliefs in the Teaching as an Art metaphor with 10.38 % having the same high score for the two categories. Scores for the metaphor that describes Teaching as Technology were not the highest for any of the respondents in this study when compared to their other two scores. One respondent's high score was equal for the two categories of Teaching as Technology and Teaching as an Art. Findings of descriptive statistical analysis of this data are presented on Table 10.

Table 10
Elementary Teachers' Agreement with Common Metaphors for Teaching

Statistics		Teaching as Technology	Teaching as an Art	Teaching as a Profession
N	Valid	116	115	115
	Missing	6	7	7
Mean		31.5345	42.2087	42.7565
Median		31.0000	42.0000	43.0000
Mode		30.00[a]	44.00	40.00
Std. Deviation		5.0501	3.6237	4.1435
Range		30.00	16.00	24.00
Minimum		15.00	34.00	26.00
Maximum		45.00	50.00	50.00

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.
Note. Maximum score = 50.

Elementary teachers indicated that they did not work from a belief system that perceived Teaching to be a Technology despite the domination of this paradigm at systemic levels reported in the literature. While most teachers perceived Teaching to be more a Profession than an Art, it is difficult to attribute a domination of either of these paradigms to elementary teachers. During inferential analysis of data, it was not known what impact the lack of any respondents in the group that perceived Teaching to be a Technology may have had on the findings. Theorists in the field that linked paradigms to the nature of supervision and evaluation indicated that a relationship did occur but this remains unsubstantiated by this study.

Phase I: Regression Analysis

Stepwise regression allowed for a statistical determination of which variables, if any, could be considered predictors of the five factors of the dependent variable. Mean scores and standard deviations of the nine independent variables and five demographic variables were computed and are reported on Table 11 and Table 12 respectively. During analysis of predictors, individual respondents' means were used for missing data. If a unit mean was unavailable because of largely incomplete or missing data, the case was removed from the study for inferential statistical analysis purposes. Demographic information did not contain missing cases.

Table 11
Means and Standard Deviations for Predictors

Variables	Mean	SD	N
Impact on students	33.67	7.02	116.00
Impact on schools as a workplace	40.33	4.28	116.00
Awarness of responses to marginal teaching	26.93	4.29	116.00
Mentorship programs	6.45	1.35	116.00
Teaching as Technology	31.36	5.06	116.00
Teaching as Art	42.26	3.58	116.00
Peer Coaching programs	6.13	1.15	116.00
Culpability	42.41	5.86	116.00
Teaching as a Profession	42.68	4.07	116.00

Table 12
Means and Standard Deviations for Demographic Information

Variables	Mean	SD	N
Teaching experience	14.63	7.18	122
Post secondary education	4.69	1.02	122
Size of staff	17.19	9.00	122
Grade level teaching assignment	1.58	.48	122
Sex	1.23	.42	122

As previously discussed, factor analysis resulted in the identification of five categories found in responses to marginal teaching performance: Disciplinary responses, normative responses, compensatory responses, summative responses, and formative responses. Stepwise regression analysis was performed on these factors. Means and standard deviations were computed and are given in Table 13.

Table 13
Means and Standard Deviations for Responses to Marginal Teaching

Variables	Mean	SD	N
Disciplinary responses	11.64	3.35	116
Normative responses	16.56	2.74	116
Compensatory responses	7.74	2.75	116
Summative responses	17.70	2.28	116
Formative responses	9.25	1.22	116

Disciplinary responses.

Disciplinary responses were those strategies implemented when the need for employment action had been determined. They can be described categorically as overt disciplinary practices and covert disciplinary practices. Overt disciplinary responses studied included the recommendation for dismissal. Covert disciplinary responses studied included counselling into early retirement, counselling into resignation, and counselling onto long term disability. Tables 14 and 15 report a summary of the stepwise regression model and ANOVA results respectively.

Table 14

Regression Analysis of Disciplinary Responses to Marginal Teaching

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.235[a]	.055	.047	3.2736
2	.308[b]	.095	.079	3.2180

a. Predictors: (Constant), Teaching as Technology

b. Predictors: (Constant), Teaching as Technology, Impact on students

Table 15

ANOVA Results for Predictors of Disciplinary Responses

ANOVA[c]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	71.259	1	71.259	6.649	.011[a]
	Residual	1221.713	114	10.717		
	Total	1292.972	115			
2	Regression	122.833	2	61.416	5.931	.004[b]
	Residual	1170.139	113	10.355		
	Total	1292.972	115			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Teaching as Technology

b. Predictors: (Constant), Teaching as Technology, Impact on students

c. Dependent Variable: Disciplinary responses to marginal teaching

The regression equation consisted of two independent variables: belief systems that are founded on the Teaching as a Technology metaphor, and perceptions of the emotional, social, and academic impact of marginal teaching on students. The regression equation was significant F (2, 115) = 5.93, p < .001, however, the amount of variance accounted for was only 9.5 %. The F-values are significant; therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and retain the alternate hypothesis. The amount of variance is not large and cannot be used in predicting attitudes. The result is not an important one in understanding attitudes about responses to marginal teaching.

Normative responses.

Normative responses were the second type of response to marginal teaching described as a component of the dependent variable. These included other teachers offering assistance, other teachers offering opportunities to observe, other teachers offering professional support, and purposeful involvement in collegial discussion. Table 16 and Table 17 report summaries of the regression model and ANOVA results respectively.

Table 16

Regression Analysis of Normative Responses

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.303 [a]	.092	.084	2.6216
2	.374 [b]	.303	.124	2.5632

a. Predictors: (Constant), Peer Coaching Programs

b. Predictors: (Constant), Peer Coaching Programs, Awareness of responses to marginal teaching

Table 17

ANOVA Results for Predictors of Normative Responses

ANOVA[c]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	79.332	1	79.332	11.543	.001[a]
	Residual	783.470	114	6.873		
	Total	862.802	115			
2	Regression	120.366	2	60.183	9.160	.000[b]
	Residual	742.435	113	6.570		
	Total	862.802	115			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Peer Coaching Programs

b. Predictors: (Constant), Peer Coaching Programs, Awareness of responses to marginal teaching

c. Dependent Variable: Normative responses to marginal teaching

The regression equation consisted of two independent variables: perceptions of the collegial practice of peer coaching when implemented to address marginal teaching, and knowledge of administrators' responses to marginal teaching. The regression equation was significant F (2, 115) = 9.16, p < .001; however, the amount of variance accounted for was only 30.3 %. The F-values are significant; therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and retain the alternate hypothesis. The amount of variance is not large and cannot be used in predicting attitudes. Again, the result is not an important one in understanding attitudes about responses to marginal teaching.

Compensatory responses.

Compensatory responses included minimizing class size for the teacher exhibiting marginal performance, minimizing placement of students with special needs, and reassignment within the school. Table 18 and Table 19 report a summary of the regression model and ANOVA results respectively.

Table 18

Regression Analysis of Compensatory Responses to Marginal Teaching

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.303[a]	.092	.084	2.6324

a. Predictors: (Constant), Mentorship Programs

Table 19

ANOVA Results for Predictors of Compensatory Responses

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	79.808	1	79.808	11.517	.001[a]
	Residual	789.985	114	6.930		
	Total	869.793	115			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Mentorship Programs

b. Dependent Variable: Compensatory responses to marginal teaching

The regression equation consisted of one independent variable: teachers' perceptions of the collegial practice of mentorship when implemented to address marginal teaching. The regression equation was significant F (1, 115) = 11.52, p < .001; however, the amount of variance accounted for was only 9.2 %. The F-value is significant; therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and retain the alternate hypothesis. The amount of variance is not large and cannot be used in predicting attitudes. The result is not an important one in understanding attitudes about responses to marginal teaching.

Summative responses.

The fourth category of responses to marginal teaching was termed summative responses. These included offering assistance from the principal, offering assistance from consultants, principals directing the teacher to change, and completing a formal evaluation. Table 20 and Table 21 report summaries of the regression model and ANOVA results respectively.

Table 20

Regression Analysis of Summative Responses to Marginal Teaching

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.310 [a]	.096	.088	2.1781
2	.388 [b]	.151	.136	2.1206
3	.428 [c]	.183	.161	2.0888

a. Predictors: (Constant), Awareness of responses to marginal teaching

b. Predictors: (Constant), Awareness of responses to marginal teaching, Impact on schools as a workplace

c. Predictors: (Constant), Awareness of responses to marginal teaching, Impact on schools as a workplace, Culpability

Table 21

ANOVA Results for Predictors of Summative Responses

ANOVA[d]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	57.557	1	57.557	12.132	.001[a]
	Residual	540.826	114	4.744		
	Total	598.382	115			
2	Regression	90.233	2	45.116	10.033	.000[b]
	Residual	508.149	113	4.497		
	Total	598.382	115			
3	Regression	109.713	3	36.571	8.382	.000[c]
	Residual	488.670	112	4.363		
	Total	598.382	115			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Awareness of responses to marginal teaching

b. Predictors: (Constant), Awareness of responses to marginal teaching, Impact on schools as a workplace

c. Predictors: (Constant), Awareness of responses to marginal teaching, Impact on schools as a workplace, Culpability

d. Dependent Variable: Summative responses to marginal teaching

The regression equation consisted of three independent variables: teachers' knowledge of administrator's responses to marginal teaching, perceptions of the impact of marginal teaching on schools as a workplace, and perceptions of culpability as a factor in decision making. The regression equation was significant F (3, 115) = 8.38, $p < .001$; however, the amount of variance accounted for was only 18.3 %. The F-values are significant; therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and retain the alternate hypothesis. The amount of variance is not large and cannot be used in predicting attitudes. The result is again not an important one in understanding attitudes about responses to marginal teaching.

Formative responses.

The final type of response to marginal teaching studied was formative responses. These included informing the teacher of unacceptable practices and offering professional development activities. Table 22 and Table 23 report summaries of the regression model and ANOVA results.

This final regression equation consisted of two independent variables: teachers' perceptions of the emotional, social, and academic impact of marginal teaching on students, and teachers' belief systems that are founded on the Teaching as an Art metaphor. The regression equation was significant F (2, 115) = 6.39, p < .001; however, the amount of variance accounted for was only 10.2 %. The F-values are significant; therefore, we reject the null hypothesis and retain the alternate hypothesis. The amount of variance is not large and again cannot be used in predicting attitudes. The result is not an important one in understanding attitudes about responses to marginal teaching.

Table 22

Regression Analysis of Formative Responses to Marginal Teaching

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.260 [a]	.068	.060	1.1851
2	.319 [b]	.102	.086	1.1686

a. Predictors: (Constant), Impact on students

b. Predictors: (Constant), Impact on students, Teaching as as Art

Table 23

ANOVA Results for Predictors of Formative Responses

ANOVA^c

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.648	1	11.648	8.294	.005^a
	Residual	160.102	114	1.404		
	Total	171.750	115			
2	Regression	17.440	2	8.720	6.385	.002^b
	Residual	154.310	113	1.366		
	Total	171.750	115			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Impact on students

b. Predictors: (Constant), Impact on students, Teaching as an Art

c. Dependent Variable: Formative responses to marginal teaching

Summary of Findings from Phase I

Weak statistical relationships were found between the independent variables and the factors of the dependent variable. The proportion of variance accounted for is greater than zero; therefore, the following null hypotheses are rejected and the alternative hypotheses accepted:

$H_0 1$: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and the paradigm from which teachers view supervision and evaluation.

$H_0 2$: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' awareness of administrator responses to marginal teaching.

$H_0 3$: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of culpability of marginal teachers.

$H_0 4$: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of the collegial practice of mentorship when implemented to address marginal teaching.

$H_0 5$: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of the collegial practice of peer coaching when implemented to address marginal teaching.

$H_0 6$: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of the impact of marginal teaching on their schools as a workplace.

$H_0 7$: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of the emotional, social, and academic impact of marginal teaching on students.

Tests of statistical significance did not result in any apparent relationship among groups based on years of teaching experience, years of post secondary education, gender, size of school as measured by the number of certificated teachers on staff, and grade level taught. These findings indicated that support for administrative practices could be achieved with a diverse group of teachers in diverse settings. The composition of a school staff was unlikely to affect the support that an administrator received nor was it likely to affect what staff members perceived should be happening about marginality.

While the results of the descriptive statistical analysis of this study offered some clear insights into understanding the perceptions of teachers regarding marginal teaching performance, understandings of relationships sought through stepwise regression analysis were weak. It would seem that when exploring a complex issue, understanding its component parts does not necessarily mean understanding the whole. As Albert Einstein (1939/1996b) said:

> To be sure, when the number of factors coming into play in a phenomenological complex is too large, scientific method, in most cases, fails us. One need only think of the weather, in which case prediction even for a few days ahead is impossible. Nevertheless no one doubts that we are confronted with a causal connection whose causal components are in the main known to us. Occurrences in this domain are beyond the reach of exact prediction because of the variety of factors in operation, not because of any lack of order in nature. (p. 26)

For example, research in the field of psychology has, for many years, aided in understanding the cognitive and developmental growth of the child yet it cannot be supposed that we know a child by way of this accumulated knowledge. In returning to the point(s) of original difficulty, the path must also be explored by understanding the stories of teachers.

Phase II: Latent Content Analysis

The dilemma of marginal teaching appears to be inadequately understood or explained both by the literature review undertaken and by the quantitative data gathered during this study. Although descriptive information has emerged from quantifiably researchable aspects of the dilemma, it has been difficult to define the basic construct of what marginal teaching is. A different path needed to be chosen. Phase II of the study was designed to add contextual meaning and depth to the research question:

> *What are the experiences and perceptions of teachers when working with professional colleagues whose teaching performance is perceived to be marginal?*

Phase II represented the multiple stories of ten elementary school teachers. Of the 122 (61 %) returned questionnaires, twenty-eight respondents indicated their willingness to participate in Phase II of the research study. Computation of scores on the sections of the questionnaire designed to indicate trends in respondents' belief systems about teaching were undertaken. The original design of Phase II had called for the completion of nine interviews comprising a random selection of three volunteers from each of these belief systems. Three who indicated the strongest belief in the metaphor that viewed Teaching as a Technology, three from the Teaching as an Art metaphor, and three from the Teaching as a Profession belief system. Due to a lack of survey respondents who viewed teaching primarily to be a Technology (n = 0), these parameters were adjusted between the phases of the study and revised to include selection of five teachers that primarily viewed Teaching as an Art and five that primarily viewed Teaching as a Profession and had the greatest differences between case means on these two areas of the survey. Interview schedules were mailed to participants one to two weeks prior to conducting the interviews.

From this sampling procedure, ten telephone interviews were conducted, audiotaped, and transcribed. Interviews ranged from fifteen minutes to thirty minutes in length and averaged about twenty minutes. Notes were taken to record pertinent ideas that could be used to probe for in-depth understandings during the interview. The interviews were loosely structured, seeking to evoke memories of events presented as stories. In agreement with Symon and Cassell (1998), these "organizational stories remained bound to the mundane realities of everyday experience, the provincial, parochial concerns of life . . . they are tied to the concrete, the fact, the historical rather than the mythological past" (p. 155). It was perceived by the researcher that during the interview process, once a participant adopted a story telling style, the respondent found the interview situation much more comfortable and was more open. The actual incidents chosen to recount were a decision of the interviewee, with guidance to select those stories that were deemed to be the most important or significant to participants.

It was not known if the events that were related through the teachers' stories were historically accurate, but they were felt to relate the sincere and honest meanings of each occurrence for the tellers. Symon and Cassell (1998) clarified acceptance of these stories in a research context in stating, "The people immersed in those situations and circumstances are trying to make sense of their reality. Their accounts are partial, but partial or not, biased or not, such accounts constitute *their* reality, and arguably it is the way they view the world which shapes their future actions" (p. 70).

Deconstruction of Organizational Stories

Exploring the knowing found in the metanarrative 'everyone knows what marginal teaching is' from the perspective of teachers was a final purpose for this study. *Webster's Universal College Dictionary* (1997) offered eleven definitions for the word know. The first of these was given as "to perceive or understand as fact or truth; apprehend clearly and with certainty." Findings of this research did not indicate that teachers know marginal teaching in the sense of understanding it as fact yet certainly they understood it as truth. As one teacher stated, "You get that feeling but there's nothing you can point to and say, 'Yes, that person is marginal'." Although teachers did not indicate they know marginal teaching clearly, they felt their knowing was with certainty.

Further definitions given by Webster's were "to understand from experience or practice," "to recognize," and "to have knowledge or clear and certain perception, as of fact or truth." This research journey began from this second perspective of the multiple meanings of knowing that acknowledged understanding and recognition to be foundations for knowing.

Understanding the elements of teachers' stories assisted in understanding the meaning. Latent content analysis followed a phenomenological path. Segments of text were examined for their inherent meaning. Patterns and themes were developed. Stories were searched for words and phrases that gave depth to the underlying experiences of working with marginal teaching performance. The technique of gathering critical incidents "enables the issues to be viewed in context and is also a rich source of information on the conscious reflections of the incumbent, their frame of reference, feelings, attitudes, and perspective on matters which are of critical importance to them" (Symon & Cassell, 1998, p. 68). An interpretation of the events recounted is offered by deconstructing the elements of the teachers' stories.

Setting(s): Diversity of elementary education in Alberta.

Stories were collected from teachers who worked in a broad variety of schools. Student enrolment in these schools was reported as ranging from just over 50 students to approximately 750 students. Two of the schools could be classified as small schools with less than 180 students, four as middle-size schools with 275 to 350 students, and three as large schools with more than 400 students. The student enrolment of one of the schools was unreported.

Teachers reported that grade configurations of the schools also varied. The student enrolment at one school was comprised only of Grades three and four. Another school housed students from Kindergarten to Grade five. In three of the sample schools, Grade four, five, and six students were enrolled. One school taught Grade four to Grade nine students and three schools offered a range of programs from Kindergarten to Grade six. The grades instructed in one of the schools in the study were not reported.

All the schools in this study were organized in traditional formats of grade levelled classrooms of approximately equal enrolment size. Teachers reported that most of their colleagues employed in the schools were curricula generalists and taught a variety of subject content areas. Specialized instructional programs reported by the teachers in the schools were music programs, segregated special education programs, remedial pull out special education programs, French Immersion, and year round schooling. Two of the schools housed community operated Early Childhood Programs while one school also was the home of a community operated day care facility with a before and after school care program, a full time day-care, and a separate community organized pre-school program.

Teachers in this study described their schools as being located in cities, towns, and rural Alberta with the majority reporting a combination of town and rural student populations. One teacher reported that the students enrolled were from low social economic backgrounds with many single parent families and foster care children enrolled in the school. All other teachers did not comment on characteristics of their student population. The interview sample of teachers in Phase II of the study thus reflected a variety of schooling situations for students and teachers in Alberta public and separate schools settings.

As teachers in this study recounted their stories, they also represented a variety of specific contextual situations. Episodes were reported that affected students from Kindergarten to Grade six and teachers with limited experience in the classroom to teachers with many years of teaching experience. Subject areas affected included core curricula, fine arts, and supportive instructional programs. School activities and instructional situations that were more exposed to general scrutiny were most often reported such as supervision, hall movement, team teaching situations, music programs, special education programs, and computer technology classes. Teachers reported that often the stories they shared were common knowledge in the school. As one teacher said, "It was very prevalent. There was so much talk and so much gossip and that's the other thing—rumours start. But yes, it was information that actually didn't even need to be shared because so many things were just witnessed." This indicated a tendency of teachers to share stories that described events in which they were observers and/or participants and had first hand knowledge about.

Plot: Egg carton schools with rice paper walls.

As it has been previously stated, no attempt was made by the researcher to verify the *truth* of the events that were disclosed through participants' stories as it is the underlying meaning that gave them their strength and merit. Therefore, only a brief summary of events described by the teachers will be reported. All the stories told focused on individual teachers whose teaching was felt by the participant to be marginal.

Stories included events in which special education programs were implemented in a haphazard manner, Kindergarten classes in which students were taught that the one right way is the teacher's way, computer classes in which the students were more familiar with the content than the teacher, and Mathematics classes in which the frustrations of a new curriculum that prescribed instructional methodology were strangling the teacher's willingness to learn. A music program that focused on showing videos and rehearsing for three months for a half-hour concert and a classroom where there were stacks of marking that was never done both formed the basis for events in teachers' stories. Also, teachers that were placed in new teaching assignments with little preparation or support were the foundation for teacher stories. Narration of questionable practices that were witnessed in team teaching situations and episodes of questionable basic literacy levels were also told. Teachers reflected on their own practices as they related these stories and searched for the differences between their teaching and that of the teachers in their stories.

In recounting these anecdotes, teachers spoke of teacher activities that were noticeable in their absence. A lack of organization, a lack of planning, a lack of classroom management skills, not covering curricula, schedules in which teachers did not spend time outside of instructional assignments at the school, and "just doing the job without doing all of the other things that go along with teaching." The most often reported of these absent events was a lack of professional discussion or communication with other staff members particularly when the teaching involved the same students. Teachers in this study perceived that this caused alienation of other staff members toward those whose performance was perceived to be marginal.

Some stories related a general summary of events that happened over the span of a school year while others were singular critical events. Critical events often included more emotive language and reported attitudes and actions that were thought of as edging closer to a determination of incompetence by the teachers interviewed. One such story speaks of "very low tolerance with student behaviour, unusual aggression [verbal] towards the students . . . I've seen a couple of instances where there was actual acting out toward the student." The language in these stories included words like "belittling," "yelling," "screaming," and "chaos in the classroom."

The plot line for the stories generally began with a description of the context, the critical events, and the outcomes. Teachers often followed this with a reflective stance on what had occurred, why, and how it might have been different. Teachers told their stories with professional integrity and at no time did they indicate that blame seeking was a purpose to the telling although they did at times address culpability.

Point of view: The eye of the beholder.

Teachers' own roles in the situations described by the stories were less often disclosed and they focused on telling the stories from an onlooker point of view. They were more apt to take a participant stance when outcomes to the stories were positive. When outcomes were negative or an issue had not yet been resolved, they became more objective and told their stories as either spokespeople for their staffs or as outsiders. In two cases teachers stated that after a while they simply "didn't want to know" and found a safe harbour from these events in their own classrooms. These teachers found it necessary to "turn a blind eye" to marginal teaching performance in their schools. The role of these teachers had changed from supportive insider to noncommittal outsider. In describing this change, one teacher stated, "A lot of the teachers were just more outraged than I was, I guess . . . I've been teaching for twenty-five years and it's sort of like 'Oh, whatever.' I just really didn't feel that getting upset was going to accomplish anything." Teachers in these situations also reported that they perceived there was nothing left within their scope of influence to do. The frustration of one of these teachers was expressed in the words, "Everybody knows that's the way it is. If administration isn't stepping in and saying it's a problem because there's enough parents who are happy with it, then nothing gets done about it even though for the sake of the children, it's not necessarily a healthy environment."

Interpretations of marginal teaching were found to be a multivariate expression of teachers' experiences with marginal teaching. Teachers talked frequently of the context of teaching when they talked about marginal teaching. Some participants reported that although a teacher might be having difficulties with one age group or with one subject area of their assignment, it was inappropriate to conclude that they were marginal teachers. In a contradictory stance, other teachers reported that marginal teaching could indeed occur with one student, one class, one subject, or at one time. Agreement was not discernible as to what constituted marginal teaching. As one teacher said, "I have to be perfectly honest here. I know that there are some days that I go to school and maybe I haven't got to sleep until 1:00 in the morning or whatever. Then, I too am a marginal teacher." Many teachers reported that they have, from time to time, what they dubbed "a bad hair day" and knew that on these days they were not teaching to the best of their ability. Despite the need to improve these situations, teachers felt that marginality was something more pervasive and more elusive.

Teachers also reported the need to acknowledge diversity amongst staff members as a result of teaching styles, instructional methods, and classroom climate. Participants hoped that these differences did not imply that one instructional style was better than another. Teachers reported that they were not sure whether others supported these multiple perspectives of teaching or if they were simply being tolerated. As one teacher said, "Other teachers might think I was marginal because my classroom management style has students walking around and talking." Teachers also perceived that parental concerns were sometimes mistakenly triggered or noticeably absent due to divergent classroom management styles. As one teacher related, "The whole idea that control is paramount — that's what parents are quite often looking for — a quiet classroom where everybody appears to be on task even though the task isn't necessarily a pedagogically sound one." The diversity found in the stories and in the people that told them led to the conclusion that the search for what constitutes marginal teaching will continue to be fraught with pitfalls and contradictions. Marginal teaching is indeed in the eye of the beholder.

Characters.

Teachers who were interviewed in this study covered a broad scope of professional backgrounds. These teachers reported a range of 1.5 to 26 years of teaching experience. Two of the teachers were near the beginning of their careers with less than five years of professional experience, two were nearing the end of their careers with more than twenty-five years of experience, with the remaining teachers reporting between nine and sixteen years of experience. Years of post secondary education reported by these teachers ranged from four years to 9.95 years with a mean of 5.2 years. Eight of the participants were female and two were male. Three of the teachers reported that they were currently placed at a Kindergarten to Grade three instructional level while seven reported that they worked at the Grade four, Grade five, or Grade six levels. No significant differences between themes or content of stories from the group of teachers who considered themselves to have a belief system that envisioned Teaching as an Art and the group that saw themselves as viewing Teaching as a Profession were found.

Teachers reported that it was through the student(s) that they were alerted to marginal teaching. A look, a frown, and/or a change in behaviour were teachers' indicators that something was amiss for the student(s). The teachers interviewed perceived a connectedness to students that opened a window through which they found themselves "focusing in on the kids and that's where we see it." For these teachers, this began their recognition of marginal teaching and as assuredly as they knew when they could "see the change in the children," they also knew teachers exhibiting marginal performance were either in situations where they were "not able to see that or not caring." One teacher stated that the "natural sensitivity" was missing. A critical examination of teachers' stories resulted in the identification of three types of marginal teaching: Flotsam, Jetsam, and Club Med.

Flotsam: Wanting to survive and working at it.

The first type of marginal teaching that was found in teachers' stories described marginality that can be likened to flotsam. Literally, flotsam are goods lost by shipwreck and found floating on the sea. Within the context of schools, flotsam describes consciously unskilled teaching. Beginning teachers, teachers who were working in a new environment or grade level, and teachers working on new curricula might constitute flotsam. They were visible, they reached out for assistance, and they were willing to assist others. They were both lost and found. While at first their movements might have seemed aimless, as the tide set a direction, a course was established. Marginal teaching of this type was a temporary state. Teachers finding themselves in these situations were able to either improve the situation immediately or seek out the assistance they needed to affect change. As one teacher said, "We are our own most severe critics ourselves. We feel at times that we're not doing the job we should be doing whether it be that we're not planned the way we would like to be or maybe we've over planned and don't meet the objectives of our own plans. And, that becomes a frustration and self critically it's saying: I'm not doing the job."

In this type of marginality, participants recognized the merits and benefits of support. "If you're not in a very supportive and collaborative atmosphere, you wouldn't even be able to talk to your colleagues about it" was the comment of one teacher. Another teacher suggested that there were "of course many teachers involved and so many teachers had opportunities to talk to him and just make suggestions or say well this is what worked last year and maybe you should try this or whatever." Flotsam teaching was reported by teachers to be a natural, re-occurring cycle in schools. Teachers in these situations were perceived as caring about their students and willing to improve. "I believe those people still have very, very high senses of moral conduct" was the conclusion of one participant.

Jetsam: Bureaucratically inspired marginal teaching.

A second type of marginal teaching described by the participants was more similar to jetsam than to flotsam. Jetsam is defined as what is thrown overboard in a time of danger to be abandoned or rejected. Human debris from the rapid onslaught of educational change often initiated by bureaucratic mandate and both expected and accepted as a by-product of this change constituted jetsam. Participants perceived that it was this form of marginal teaching that festered and eroded the energy and will of teachers. It was this form of marginal teaching which teachers reported as being the most fearful. One teacher concluded, "As teaching becomes more difficult, as teachers are more fragmented in their efforts and as they're trying to deal with stress and trying to deal with overload and trying to deal with children who are not coming to us as ready to learn and as safe and secure in their own place in their world as what we had maybe twenty five years ago or a couple of generations ago . . . perhaps it's easier for marginal teaching to come into being."

Teachers in this study reported that marginal teaching resultant to the meltdown of hope and energy was indicative of "how hard teaching has become." One teacher said, "It's more a tiredness . . . and . . . that's what may lead to marginal teaching;" a tiredness due to the rapid acceleration of change. Teachers' stories told of seeing colleagues fall by the wayside in a field of frustration "when new curriculum [and] new demands are placed upon employees" without the time, resources, and support to implement these changes. The participants suggested that teachers "should be given the time to learn" because "that's what it comes down to. We aren't well enough trained" for tomorrow's classrooms. Teachers became jetsam when they could no longer cope with today's classrooms. Teachers reported that survival kicked in and teachers began to think, "I'm going to do what I have to do to get through." In this educational climate, some teachers became marginal, the jetsam of educational bureaucracies.

When the need for the education organization to change and grow was given priority over individuals within that organization, marginal teaching emerged and teachers might have perceived themselves to again be consciously unskilled. But, unlike flotsam marginality, in cases of jetsam marginal teaching hope was buried beneath bureaucratic overload. Some "teachers have almost given up, I think, with the stresses and different curricula coming in. So much change. So much happening and so quickly … Some of them have just sort of thrown up their hands." Teachers perceived that jetsam teachers who exhibited marginal teaching performance were aware they were not doing the job but did not have the resources to keep up, if resources are measured as the teacher's time, energy, and ongoing training.

Outcomes of jetsam marginal teaching reported by teachers included "rather than moving onto another job or taking early retirement or whatever, they just kind of go along." An administrative response to this type of marginal teaching reported was coaching into early retirement. Empathy by participants was most apparent in this form of marginal teaching as the teachers shifted from speaking about others to speaking about themselves. As one teacher said, "He's been in a job for a long time and you're getting tired, we all get tired." Or as another stated, "I think it's important for teachers to be supportive always because I think I could become marginal without even knowing it." Participants perceived that, while they pitied these teachers, they still needed to do something about the marginality first and pity them later.

Club Med: Where do I sign?

Teachers' stories indicated that there are times when marginal teaching was more long term and that there were some teachers who "make a career out of marginal teaching" and/or were "indulging in marginal teaching." They described this practice as being self-indulgent and having little connection to the students, learning, or the profession of teaching. This type of teaching can be described as Club Med marginal teaching. Adjectives that participants applied to Club Med marginal teaching were that teachers who exhibited Club Med performance were lax, it was laziness, or they "don't really take it far enough." Indicators cited included unacceptable work ethics and lack of ownership for improvement.

Club Med marginal teachers were unconsciously unskilled. That is, they were not aware that they were not skilled teachers and might in fact have viewed themselves as working hard. Participants perceived that colleagues who could be characterized as exhibiting this type of marginal teaching simply did not care enough to change. They expressed a view that the teacher might exhibit "a general lack of interest in trying to find strategies that work in the classroom." One teacher interviewed attributed this to the fact that marginality made it difficult to "judge their success as a teacher by the results that they got from the children. That's where they should be thinking: I'm successful if my children are successful, but sometimes it doesn't go that far; they just sort of think: Well, I'll do what I have to do and then my job is done." One teacher, in relating aspects of a program where students were pulled out of their regular classrooms for remediation, said, "If the kids didn't go, he didn't come and get them or made a little bit of an attempt ten minutes later to come and get them, but kind of showing he didn't really care if the kids came or not." A second teacher used the term "dry cleaning teachers" and defined this as teachers who were "in by nine and out by three" and "just take the easy route." Participants who had worked with teachers who exhibited Club Med marginal teaching performance perceived that "they seem to be unperturbed by social pressure or anything" and that they lacked motivation to grow and change or had questionable motives such as being "just in it for the money." Work ethic was a key concern of teachers in describing this type of marginal teaching.

Teachers reported responses by administrators to Club Med marginal teaching as being generally ineffective. Teachers perceived that not much happened to Club Med teachers and that eventually their approach to teaching became "just a habit now [with] no interest in being their best in the profession." Colleagues exhibiting Club Med teaching performance were seen by the teachers in this study as fully aware of their personal interests. Teachers also reported that during episodes of Club Med marginal teaching, these colleagues were often able to have other people do their jobs for them either by delegation or by manipulation as evidenced in waiting until the last minute before beginning vital tasks. An admitted lack of know-how with a request for assistance was also cited as a manipulative strategy employed in Club Med teaching. In two of the stories, the teachers who exhibited marginality were well liked by administrators and used manipulation and personal friendship to maintain their employment status quo.

Tone: The field of tension.

Just as the situations that are conducive to flotsam and jetsam marginal teaching starting are similar, lack of supportive and caring school environments were perceived by teachers as primary features that resulted in negative professional growth and/or development in these types of marginal teaching. Lack of acceptance of support and lack of reciprocation of caring were seen as primary factors that formed the groundwork for continued marginal teaching entrenching itself into the work lives of the people in the school. In this environment, mediocrity thrived.

Hope and challenge were the tone of conversations that teachers shared about flotsam marginal teachers. They reached out with enthusiasm and energy to help each other, as they too knew they had been helped and would be helped again. The fear of risk-taking was also mentioned. Sadness and despair were the emotions most often expressed by teachers when discussing jetsam marginal teaching. Teachers perceived that this form of marginal teaching was an injustice—an unfair outcome of the rapidly implemented changes mandated by external experts who then used external standards to verify that teachers were not doing their jobs. The fear of becoming entrapped in this fate was an inherent danger that teachers were aware of. As one teacher stated, "It can happen without you knowing it and that's the scary part." Thirdly, anger and frustration were the feelings most conveyed in stories about Club Med marginal teaching. Teachers expressed distaste at the protection of colleagues by both the teachers' professional organization and continuing contracts of employment. Contradiction and confusion were manifest as teachers struggled with issues of just cause as applied to Club Med marginal teaching and as applied to jetsam marginal teaching. They offered no resolution to this dilemma. Teachers were gripped by doubt.

Themes: Loss and Control

In their stories, teachers had a sound understanding of how marginal teaching affects students and their schools. The stories spoke of the need to avoid the isolationism of egg carton schools but also of the sanctuary that they found within the walls of their own classrooms. Two re-occurring themes were of being lost/found and of control.

First, in describing colleagues who exhibited marginal performance as being lost, teachers discussed the feelings of helplessness that went hand in hand with this. Participants established a dichotomy between being lost and being found to describe the differences between marginal teaching and good teaching. As marginal teaching became synonymous with being lost, teachers could express the frustration, hope, and challenges without contradiction. For the person who is lost, being lost is not always a negative occurrence. Being lost could also be seen as the freedom to ramble and roam.

Secondly, the issue of control surfaced throughout the stories. Despite a declared need to understand the range of styles, methods, and personalities that they worked with in schools, teachers consistently pointed towards control as a negative indicator of marginal teaching. One teacher stated, "The biggest roadblock to the paradigm shift right there is people seem to think that structure and control equates with good teaching." Teachers reported witnessing militaristic behaviour that resulted in a "sheer battle" of wills with students. This mode of teaching through control and fear manifested itself into conflict between teacher and students. Participants were very disturbed that this authoritarian management style was causing risk to students' emotional development and enjoyment in learning.

Teachers also reported that control mechanisms implemented as responses to marginal teaching by administrators were not effective in changing situations. Teachers perceived that flotsam marginal teaching was already in a state of flux and improvement so it was unlikely control mechanisms could assist in this improvement but more likely that it would only hamper the outcomes. Jetsam marginal teaching was a result of mandated change implemented through systemic control mechanisms and increasing this forcibly was likely to create more carnage. Club Med marginal teaching was likely undeterred by control mechanisms that might have the same impact as leading the proverbial horse to water.

Chapter VI

Reflections, Interpretations and Conclusions

Introduction

Findings from the data of this study can be clustered around three themes: Those related to theories of supervision and evaluation, those reflecting teachers' perceptions about responses to marginal teaching, and those focusing on teachers' perceptions about the impact of marginal teaching. Through the following discussions and reflections the research questions are revisited, possibilities for interpretations are formulated, and conclusions are presented.

Theories of Supervision and Evaluation

An interwoven journey during this study was the development of understandings of the knowing found in the metanarrative, 'everyone knows what marginal teaching is,' and in doing so expand the theoretical basis of teacher supervision and evaluation focusing on marginal teaching performance. Two areas of scholarly thought became the oceans upon which the ideas floated, came to rest, then travelled on: (a) paradigms that define the nature of supervision and evaluation, and (b) contingency theory. The research question that focused on the theoretical aspects of this study was:

- *How do teachers' perceptions of supervision and evaluation affect support for practices employed by administrators as they work with teachers whose performance is perceived to be marginal?*

Paradigm Tension: The clash between bureaucratic positivism and teachers' belief systems.

Theory that has emerged to describe the nature of supervision and evaluation focuses on three possibilities: Teaching as Technology, Teaching as Art, and/or Teaching as Profession. The complexities and multiple interpretations of these three paradigms have been demonstrated in the literature reviewed and in the findings of this study.

Conflict between the bureaucratic approach to supervision and evaluation and teachers' belief systems begins with the application of the positivist paradigm to research, policy, and practice and is a path well worn. The assumptions underlying the bureaucratic approach are that the evaluator has the power to change teacher behaviour, teachers are broken and need fixing, and that the rating of teachers in some way can lead to improved instruction (Rooney, 1993). Van Manen (1990) argued against the bureaucratic orientation to teacher supervision and evaluation and stated:

> Pedagogy does not reside in certain behaviours or actions. If it did, then all we would need to do would be to copy those relevant actions or observable behaviours. But a positivistic orientation tends to confuse pedagogy with what teachers … do. It tends to judge teachers almost entirely in terms of the ability to demonstrate certain productivity, effectiveness, or the competencies which are presumed to serve these values. (p. 145)

Findings of this study reaffirmed these contradictions. Statistical analysis of quantitative data from Phase I of the study resulted in the confirmation of a paradigm dilemma. Teachers consistently perceived teaching to be much more an Art or a Profession than a Technology despite the domination of the Teaching as Technology metaphor within the bureaucratic structure of the education system in Alberta. This finding is consistent with theorists such as Gitlin (1990) who concluded that Teaching as an Art is contextually aligned and rests on the empowerment of teachers. Darling-Hammond (1990) further addressed the need for situational, contextual considerations found in the Teaching as an Art and Teaching as Profession metaphors. Sergiovanni and Starratt's (1993) supposition that "most teachers and supervisors privately believe that teaching is far more an artistic enterprise than a scientific one" (p. 202) is supported by findings of this current research.

While the elementary teachers in this study perceived teaching to be primarily an Art or a Profession, they have spoken strongly about the need for support and assistance strategies in addressing marginal teaching performance. Analysis of demographics indicated that a broad sample for the study was obtained through random sampling. Statistical analysis indicated solid consensus in areas of the study that dealt with impact on students, impact on schools as a workplace, awareness of responses to marginal teaching, and support for administrator responses. Strong support for the Teaching as an Art and Teaching as a Profession metaphors can be linked to findings which indicated vast similarities in what elementary teachers think despite differences amongst them.

The literature reviewed strongly suggests a probable connection between teachers' belief systems and the nature of supervision and evaluation that teachers would support. Yet, stepwise regression analysis findings supporting this connection are not strong indicators that these belief systems are predictors of teachers' attitudes about administrator responses to marginal teaching. These findings may challenge current theory that links these variables. Since findings of the study also indicated that none of the participants' belief systems were rooted in the Teaching as Technology paradigm, it is not known if nor how support for administrator responses to marginal teaching would be affected by this alternate belief system.

Moral Tension: The clash between rightness and fairness.

Contingency theory was also an area that was drawn into this exploration of marginal teaching. Contingency theory holds that leadership decisions are context specific and that context determines the type of decision, and therefore action, that will be effective. It focuses on the 'it depends' quandary. Analysis of teacher's stories was in part concerned with the contingency issue as applied to administrative responses to marginal teaching performance. Findings indicated teachers' support for responses to marginal teaching were linked to this consideration of context. Teachers reported that three types of marginal teaching, which I have termed Flotsam, Jetsam, and Club Med, were evident in Alberta schools. Teachers also indicated that support for responses by administrators was related to teachers' perceptions of the characteristics inherent in these specific types of marginality.

Findings about teachers' awareness of administrator responses to marginal teaching were congruent in both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study in all but the cases of Club Med marginal teaching. In these cases, the teachers' stories reported that they were unaware of professional responses by administrators to Club Med marginal teaching. Other than objections to the use of some compensatory and covert disciplinary practices, there were no discernible patterns in what teachers thought administrators were or should be doing in these cases. Teachers communicated a sense of betrayal toward the students and the profession of teaching when speaking of Club Med marginal teaching.

It was Club Med marginal teaching that baited the trap of consciousness for teachers. Teachers reported that they were torn between their moral sense of right or wrong and their rational sense of what is fair or unfair. While the legalities of due process, just cause, and professional conduct guided their rational sense of fairness, the immorality of inaction and uncaring guided moral accountability. As Nias (1999) stated, teachers develop "a moral, as distinct from legal, sense of responsibility for and accountability to pupils and often to their parents" (p. 226). In this sense, the contingency theory is unable to prescribe a justifiable course of action for responding to marginal teaching that would be supported by elementary teachers. The participants in the study were trapped in a clash between the fairness inherent in the bureaucratic accountability of the Teaching as a Technology paradigm and the rightness underlying the moral accountability of the Teaching as a Profession paradigm. As Nias (1999) declared:

> Teachers sense that they have a personal relationship with and moral obligation to children and their parents that is constantly overridden by an official spirit of contractualism that they do not endorse and over which they have little control. In simplistic terms, they feel that the traditional service ethic of education has been replaced by one of consumerism. (p. 227)

Teachers were left with a chronic sense of guilt.

Conclusions.

Clashes in belief systems will not readily be resolved. In summary, teachers' perceptions of supervision and evaluation based on the Teaching as an Art and Teaching as a Profession metaphor will remain in conflict with administrator responses to marginal teaching that are based in the Teaching as a Technology paradigm. Teachers may support administrator responses that are formulated outside of this positivistic realm with the exception of cases of Club Med marginal teaching performance. While teachers' perceptions support the application of contingency theory in addressing marginal teaching performance, the question remains: Contingent on what? The clash between rightness and fairness is again a conflict that is not easily resolved. When adopting a positivistic framework, difficulties in determining what teaching *is* abound. Findings support a call for supervision and evaluation practices that are 'out of the box.'

Responses to Marginal Teaching

Responses to marginal teaching were studied from two directions: What was occurring? What should be occurring? Research questions that focused on responses to marginal teaching were:

- *What do teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching?*
- *What administrator responses to marginal teaching are teachers aware of?*
- *What are teachers' perceptions of culpability?*
- *What are teachers' perceptions regarding the collegial practice of mentorship when implemented to address marginal teaching?*
- *What are teachers' perceptions regarding the collegial practice of peer coaching when implemented to address marginal teaching?*

Regression analysis rejected the following null hypothesis but without predictive strength.

$H_0$2: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' knowledge of administrators' responses to marginal teaching.

Responses to marginal teaching can be categorized into five themes: Compensatory, Formative, Normative, Summative, and Disciplinary Responses. Following is a brief discussion of findings of this study corresponding to each of these.

Compensatory responses.

Compensatory responses are implemented to reduce the impact of marginal teaching. In the quantitative phase of this study, while teachers reported that compensatory strategies were a common occurrence in schools, they did not support these practices. Teachers' stories told a similar tale. Outcomes of many of the episodes related were unsatisfactory to teachers as they involved compensatory actions. Teachers' stories described cases in which term-certain contracts of employment were simply allowed to expire, cases where teachers were offered early retirement packages, and cases where everyone pitched in to do someone else's job in order to compensate for marginality. Teachers indicated that they believed that the use of compensatory actions was widespread. These practices were also reported to be the least supportable of the five types of administrative responses to marginal teaching.

Formative responses.

Formative responses to marginal teaching performance are implemented to achieve growth or change. All formative responses studied were reported both as occurring and as being supported by teachers. Teachers reported that responses to marginal teaching should contain a strong component of assistance. Teachers were willing to be involved in assisting colleagues who exhibited marginal teaching but perceived that obstacles could be found to the implementation of this response practice. Barriers to formative responses reported by teachers were time, energy, and the apprenticeship concept of common formative practices.

In response to research questions which focused on peer coaching and mentorship programs, teachers often did not see themselves as having the time for these formative practices given the current organizational structure of schools and job assignments of teachers. Teachers' perceptions of mentorship and peer coaching practices were not an important factor in predicting support for administrative responses to marginal teaching. The amount of variance that accounted for the dependent variable was not large and, although the null hypotheses were rejected, this result cannot be used in predicting teachers' attitudes.

In support of teachers' concerns about limiting the growth of knowledge and skills through the use of apprenticeship type formative strategies such as mentoring and peer coaching, Fullan (1999) painted a picture of teacher growth and development in education shackled by intellectual capitalism. Knowledge distribution was reported as resting on a narrow plane. Bureaucratic, evaluative searches for higher skills, knowledge, and attributes and recognition of these through promotion in the bureaucracy have resulted in a perceived loss of advantage in moves toward the adoption of climates supporting collaborative sharing. Past practices emphasizing summative evaluation have created school cultures in which being the best, the exemplar, the master teacher, fuzzy but recognizable categories, holds more importance than reciprocity, the "sharing of tacit knowledge among multiple individuals with different backgrounds, perceptions, and motivations" (Fullan, 1999, p. 22).

Normative responses.

Normative responses are responses to marginal teaching performance implemented collectively by school staffs with a goal of achieving growth or change based on internally developed and communicated standards. Teachers in this study thought of normative responses as strategies that should frequently, but not necessarily always occur. Barriers to normative responses to marginal teaching were reported to be denial that assistance was needed and refusal of assistance. Teachers shared stories in which they offered to help but were rebuffed. Colleagues who exhibited marginal teaching performance had in effect removed themselves from their professional communities. Teachers were torn between a perception that isolationism was fostering marginal teaching while empathising with the professional preference for privacy. As Sergiovanni (1997) stated, "The implicit nature of artisan practice can make teachers feel uncomfortable and even threatened when they are forced into professional community settings that require formal sharing of what they know. This may be why a distinct preference for privacy in practice seems to categorize teaching" (p. 259).

Summative responses.

Summative responses are implemented to judge merit. In the area of summative responses, completing a formal evaluation was supported by nearly half the teachers to be a strategy that should always occur while support for other summative strategies in addressing marginal teaching was diverse. Teachers reported that there was a need to identify marginal teaching through the summative evaluation process and to clearly communicate the need for change.

Barriers to implementation of summative responses to marginal teaching performance were reported to be marginal administrative performance, politics, paradigms, and bureaucracy. Specifically teachers raised concerns that the Alberta Teachers' Association hindered actions. Teachers reported that requirements of the *Code of Professional Conduct* might put them in an uncomfortable situation. Teachers perceived that they knew when marginal teaching was affecting the pedagogical experience of students and that it encompassed more than direct classroom instruction. They also felt that they should be able to discuss this professionally with their administrators and supported the school working together as a community to assist in the improvement of marginal teaching.

Disciplinary responses.

Findings indicated that judgmental outcomes of the summative evaluation process and employment decisions or actions will receive a broad range of support/nonsupport from teachers. The overt disciplinary practice of recommending dismissal might be supported in cases of Club Med marginal teaching in which other more assisting and directive practices had failed to result in sustainable improvement. It is unlikely that the same degree of support for a recommendation for dismissal will occur in cases of Flotsam or Jetsam marginal teaching. Teachers did not support covert disciplinary practices that involved counselling into retirement, resignation, or long term disability. The inherent dangers perceived by teachers in implementing and supporting covert practices was that they circumnavigated due process and just cause. Again, the tension between fairness and rightness caused a sense of discomfort for teachers.

Culpability.

Previous studies indicated a link between culpability and administrator responses to marginal teaching performance. Direct culpability of the teacher, as indicated when discipline was perceived as the most appropriate action, was expressed by teachers on only one of the factors studied: non-improvement after being directed to do so. Regression analysis rejected the following null hypothesis, again without predictive strength.

$H_0$3: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of culpability of marginal teachers.

In contradiction, qualitative findings indicated that, given the recognition that there are three types of marginal teaching, culpability was a factor in determining support for responses to marginal teaching.

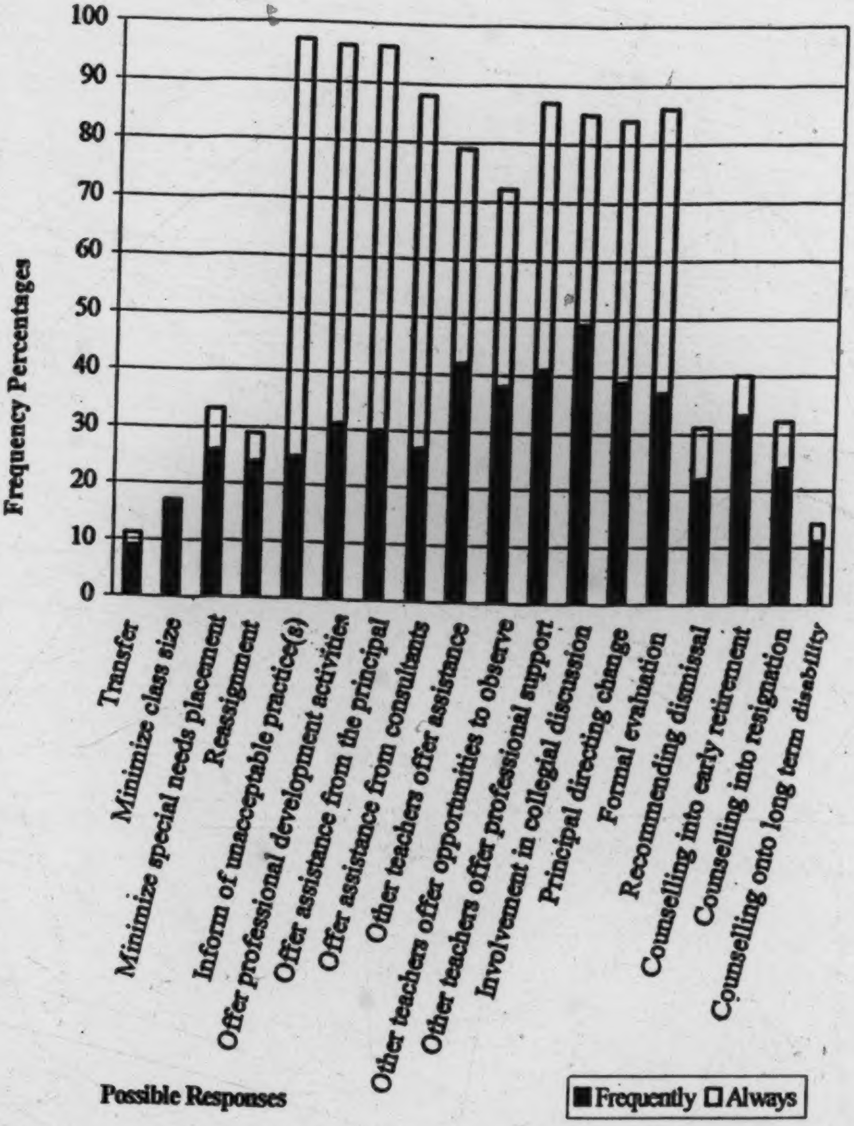
Conclusions.

Findings of this study indicated that elementary teachers would support strategies that focused on professional growth, development, and assistance in response to marginal teaching performance in cases of Flotsam and Jetsam marginal teaching. In cases of Club Med marginal teaching, support would be less tenable. The study also confirmed findings of previous studies in the field of supervision and evaluation of marginal teaching performance that indicated the widespread use of compensatory responses to address marginal teaching. Compensatory strategies may be more readily implemented given the present infrastructure and culture of schools and schooling in Alberta.

During the study, in addressing the research questions concerning the awareness and support of administrative responses to marginal teaching performance, teachers rated possible responses to marginal teaching as to whether or not they were aware of these occurring. Teachers further rated these responses as to whether or not they perceived that they should be occurring. Findings indicated differences between teachers' perceptions of what was occurring in schools in response to marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions about what should be occurring. Teachers' knowledge of administrative practices and policies in general, school culture, and/or their personal knowledge of pedagogy may alter their awareness of responses to marginal teaching. A summary of frequencies of support for responses to marginal teaching performance that teachers perceived should be occurring is shown in Figure 2.

The humanistic nature of elementary teachers in placing others before themselves and a moral accountability to students might account for support for a limited use of compensatory responses to marginal teaching. In particular, teachers considered that the best placement for students with special needs as being outside of learning environments characterized by marginal teaching. Teachers also indicated professional support for their peers through some reduction in the demands of the teaching assignment for teachers exhibiting marginal performance despite a perceived connection of these actions to a hidden reward system for marginality.

Figure 2. Frequency percentages of teachers' preferred responses to marginal teaching performance.



Impact of Marginal Teaching

The third area of focus in this study was the impact of marginal teaching both on schools as a workplace and on students. The research questions that were directly related to the impact of marginal teaching were:

- *What are teachers' perceptions of the impact of marginal teaching on schools as a workplace?*
- *What are teachers' perceptions of the social, emotional, and academic impact of marginal teaching on students*?

Impact on schools as workplaces.

Teachers' stories told of the personal impact of marginal teaching. A sense of betrayal was expressed based on the perception that politics and paradigms were both barriers to possibilities. The frustration of wanting to assist but feeling they had no time to do so also emerged. Anger, pity, despair, doubt, and hope were all emotional indicators of the teachers' sense of struggle found in the dilemma of marginal teaching.

Teachers reported a negative impact of marginal teaching on their classrooms as workplaces but, paradoxically, in the survey they reported increases in collegiality, congeniality, and job satisfaction occurring when marginal teaching was evident. These findings are interrelated with findings on teachers' perceptions of effective responses to marginal teaching. Formative strategies received high ratings from teachers and were linked to collegial and collaborative work places. Congeniality and job satisfaction were strong contradictions to other findings. Further research in the field of school climate and culture would be needed to understand this finding. It is not known if teachers were referring to a more congenial environment, more congenial relationships with peers, or more congenial relationships with administrators nor is it known which specific aspects of their job they found more satisfying. Although this may also be understood by examining the way in which people band together in times of adverse conditions, it is beyond the scope of this study.

Findings indicated that the teachers perceived there was an informal incentive system for marginal teaching in place in schools that resulted in a 'softer' job assignment. Some teachers indicated that this caused a sense of entrapment. Although they felt it important to offer all students the best educational environment possible, they also did not agree with practices that appeared to reward marginal teaching. At times, the frustration that resulted from this caused them to simply want to go into their own classrooms and shut the door, metaphorically hiding their heads in the sand. The altruistic nature of many elementary school teachers might not have allowed them to consider the impact on their own workplace as harshly as they reported the impact on students.

Impact on students.

Findings indicated that teachers perceived the social, emotional, and academic development of students were negatively affected by marginal teaching. The risk to students due to marginal teaching reported by these teachers was profound. In their stories, teachers clarified that it was through the students that they often became aware of marginal teaching. Teachers also perceived that marginal teaching was not something that occurred within the confines of a classroom. It permeated throughout the school and was felt by students, parents, and staff. It affected not only the students directly assigned to a particular class but also the pedagogical experiences of everyone it touched.

Current policies and practices in the field of supervision and evaluation of teaching contain formative and summative foci, but rarely reflect the negative impacts of marginal teaching reported by teachers. Should teacher supervision and evaluation attempt to consider student behaviours, effort, and/or attitudes? Can teacher quality be linked to these factors on more definitive grounds? Darling-Hammond (1990) voiced a need for social science research to broaden the scope of inquiry.

> A concern for the effects of teaching on students need not, indeed would not, imply a narrow construction of means-ends criteria in which specific practices are justified only by their links to specific, limited outcomes. Instead, concerns for the effects of teaching on students—their intellectual success and progress, motivation and confidence as learners, attitudes toward school and learning, and growth as responsible human beings—should encourage teachers and evaluators to consider the implications for student lives and learning of teaching decisions, heightening rather than obscuring attention to questions of goals and trade-offs, differing student needs, and the reciprocal nature of teaching. Ultimately, it is only in the examination of how classroom practices affect students that good teaching can be defined. (p. 156)

Issues surrounding the purposes for supervision and evaluation may be linked to this perceived negative impact of marginal teaching. In light of the findings, re-examining the purposes for supervision and evaluation and constructing multiple meanings for accountability are warranted.

Purposes for supervision and evaluation: The 'or' to 'and' issue.

The metaphors Teaching as a Technology, Teaching as an Art, and Teaching as a Profession reveal assumptions hidden within belief systems guiding supervision and evaluation practices. Comparisons can be drawn to develop understandings of the apparent strengths and weaknesses of each of these paradigms as they apply to supervision and evaluation of educational personnel. This conceptual map leads to the conclusion that neither the metaphor that views Teaching as a Technology nor the metaphor that views Teaching as an Art have, nor will be able to address the dual purposes of supervision and evaluation. These worldviews can only act singularly to address either accountability or the improvement of instruction through professional development of teachers.

The tension between evaluation goals can be partially attributed to divergent views held by shareholders of the primary purpose of teacher evaluation. A growing body of research questions the ability of supervision and evaluation practices to address these dual purposes of evaluation (Haughey et al., 1993; see also; Stiggins 1988; Phillips, 1994). Haughey et al. examined the impact of the dual purposes of evaluation in Alberta and found that these purposes were incompatible. Darling-Hammond (1990) concurred with Haughey et al. and exposed the difficulties encountered in developing a single evaluation policy that could be used for both summative and formative purposes. Darling-Hammond summarized views on discourse on the perspectives of shareholders in stating:

> Teachers have a stake in maintaining their jobs, their self-respect, and their sense of efficacy. They want a teacher evaluation system that encourages self-improvement, appreciates the complexity of their work, and protects their rights. Principals have a stake in maintaining stability in their organizations, allowing them to respond to parental and bureaucratic concerns for accountability while keeping staff morale intact. They want an evaluation system that is objective, not overly time consuming, and feasible in the organizational context. Parents and public officials have a stake in the 'bottom line'—the effects of teaching on student outcomes. They want an evaluation system that relates teacher performance to teacher effectiveness, and that guarantees appropriate treatment of children in classrooms. (p. 150)

Accountability OR the improvement of instruction through professional development of teachers?

The purposes for supervision and evaluation of educational personnel have been grounded in the dichotomy of opposing views: Accountability *or* the improvement of instruction. The purposes that are envisioned for supervision and evaluation affect, in part, models that have emerged. The paradigms that envision Teaching as a Technology and Teaching as an Art have given rise to distinct policies and practices in the field of supervision and evaluation. The purpose of accountability is congruent with a vision of Teaching as a Technology. The purpose of professional development is congruent with the metaphor that perceives Teaching to be an Art. The literature reviewed indicated that these differences in belief systems have led to the development of models that focus on either evaluation *or* supervision, that reflect either summative practices *or* formative practices. Findings of this study indicated that despite the adoption of these two disparate models, the negative impact of marginal teaching on students was a grave concern of elementary school teachers.

In Alberta, indications are that the drive is strengthening to separate and implement coterminous practices each based on one of the two purposes for supervision and evaluation. In support of this, Maynes, Knight, McIntosh and Umpleby (1995) in a case study of teacher evaluation procedures and professional growth in exemplary schools in Alberta, found that enabling structures for practices included the separation of evaluation for accountability and evaluation for personal growth. But, some theorists temper this approach with caution. In the words of Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993), "No supervisory system based on a single purpose can succeed over time. A system that focuses only on quality control, for example, invites difficulties with teachers and lacks needed expansive qualities. A supervisory system concerned only with providing support and help to teachers is not sufficiently comprehensive to ensure that minimum standards are being met" (p. 220).

Each metaphor, Teaching as a Technology or Teaching as an Art, has aligned itself with the one purpose that gives it merit and strength in supervision and evaluation. Each paradigm, as Technology or Art, relies on the key factor of _or_ for its continued survival and the parallel existence of the other. It is mutually beneficial for those that envision Teaching as a Technology and those that perceive Teaching as an Art to adopt this stance. Gleave (1997) stated, "The lack of clear purpose . . . has plagued performance appraisal, as well as performance development" (p. 269). Severing ties between evaluation of teaching and supervision of teachers is emerging as a solution to the problem of the perceived incompatibility of these purposes. In examining multiple understandings of these common purposes for supervision and evaluation, challenges are raised to the blind spots that are creating arguments supporting the severance of accountability and professional improvement in supervision and evaluation.

Accountability AND the improvement of instruction through professional development of teachers?

In contradiction to these arguments, when teaching is viewed as a profession, improvement and accountability in supervision and evaluation become interrelated and mutually supportive. A key characteristic of the metaphor of Teaching as a Profession is professional judgement; that the nature of education is formed not on what teaching is but how it is; how it is to be with children. It calls for a willingness to adopt an attitude of *and* rather than *or*. Based on the primacy of professional judgement, both accountability and professional development occur hand in hand. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) dub this Normative Supervision with the characteristics of shared values, professional norms or community norms, a need for teachers to care about each other and help each other, and a culture where "self interest is exchanged for altruistic reason" (p. 18). Teachers as professionals emerge as accountable to these shared professional norms and responsible for shared professional development.

Exploring accountability.

Key understandings of the interrelationship between accountability and professional development are framed within the multiple meanings of accountability: Bureaucratic accountability, professional accountability, and moral accountability. The perceived dissonance in the purposes of evaluation is influenced by the construction of meaning surrounding accountability that has been formed. Accountability characterized by hierarchy, rules and regulations, mandates, and role expectations is marked by a belief that teachers are expected to comply or face the consequences and is an external form of bureaucratic accountability. Accountability is often thought of as bureaucratic accountability, and clearly interpreted as this in the positivistic paradigm. Fullan (1999) labels bureaucratic accountability as superficial or super-official thinking. Two other forms of accountability warrant discussion: professional accountability, and moral accountability.

Professional accountability addresses the complex nature of teaching. In defining professional accountability, Darling Hammond (1989) stated that:

> Professional accountability seeks to support practices that are client-orientated and knowledge-based . . . professional accountability assumes that, since teaching is too complex to be hierarchically prescribed and controlled, it must be structured so that practitioners can make responsible decisions, both individually and collectively. (p. 78)

A key distinction between professional accountability and bureaucratic accountability is that, in the former, standards are established internally while in the latter they are established externally. A key distinction between professional accountability and formative supervision is that, in the former, goal setting occurs amongst colleagues while in the latter it is undertaken by the teacher and communicated to the supervisor.

Moral accountability is often found in the preamble of educational documents through the words 'in the best interests of children' but is less often discernible in policies, procedures, and practices that follow from these. The rhetoric of these statements recognizes the importance of the ethic of caring, but with the reality of the current emphasis on external teaching standards, a narrowing provincial curriculum, selective placement of integrated students with special needs, and evaluatory use of provincial student testing scores, it appears that some students are more politically deserving of the mindfulness of their 'best interests' than others. "Moral accountability considers that what is right and good is as important as what works and is effective, collegiality is a professional virtue, and that collegiality is internally felt and morally driven interdependence" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993, p. 35). Fullan (1999) appealed to the common good in asking that moral as opposed to bureaucratic reasons be emphasized in creating education environments in which capacity building counts. Nias (1999) in *Teachers' Moral Purposes: Stress, Vulnerability, and Strength* suggested that because "teachers value . . . the idea that they are morally rather than legally accountable to their pupils . . . the job of a teacher involves 'caring' for them" (p. 223). The stories that were gathered in this study indicated that moral accountability as envisioned through this ethic of caring is a key factor in teachers' perceptions of the negative impact of marginal teaching on students and on the workplace.

Conclusions.

Although teachers reported the impact of marginal teaching on students and schools as a workplace as negative, a statistical correlation between these factors and how teachers perceived administrators should respond to marginality was weak. When compared to the dependent variable, regression analysis rejected the null hypotheses:

$H_0$6: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of the impact of marginal teaching on their schools as a workplace.

$H_0$7: There will be no differences between what teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching and teachers' perceptions of the emotional, social, and academic impact of marginal teaching on students.

Acceptance of the alternate hypotheses did not allow for predictive strength in examining teachers' support for administrator responses to marginal teaching.

Findings from the qualitative data indicated that perceptions of the negative impact of marginal teaching performance on both students and schools as a workplace were deeply rooted in the personal identities of teachers. A study by Nias (1999) found that many teachers achieved a sense of personal identity in their work and "go to considerable lengths to protect their sense of individual identity" (p. 225). Teacher identity is undermined each time professional growth is measured by attendance at system workshops, familiarity with curriculum revisions, improvement on criteria based checklists, and teacher tests. Power struggles continue between the ideals of support for teachers versus discipline of teachers; empowerment and trust versus regulation and control; personal growth versus surveillance and scrutiny. The elementary teachers in this study asked only that decisions be made while looking into the hearts of the students.

A Critical Challenge

Is the dilemma of marginal teaching an issue of bureaucratic accountability, professional accountability, and/or moral accountability? Theories that have developed in the field of supervision and evaluation based on the assumptions described by the three metaphors of teaching raised concerns regarding marginal teaching. A key issue within each of these metaphors was accountability. Teachers in this study considered that a second key issue was an ethic of caring. These issues within a framework of teacher supervision and evaluation are significant to the development and implementation of policies and practices surrounding marginal teaching.

Darling-Hammond (1990) reviewed major concepts characterizing the reform movement of the 1980s and 1990s as being teacher professionalism, school restructuring, and organizational renewal. Wise and Gendler (1990) reported on "intensified interest" (p. 387) in teacher evaluation for all purposes as an outcome of the reform movement. The difficulties in operationalizing change were summarized by Hoyle (1990) who stated, "The challenge facing policy makers and administrators is to make teacher-evaluation systems actually improve teaching performance and produce positive student outcomes. Until that happens, teachers and administrators will continue to complain that most systems do not distinguish between clearly outstanding and mediocre teaching" (p. 315). In order to reduce the negative impact of marginal teaching, educators must accept the challenge that lies in the search for new possibilities.

Chapter VII

Summary, Recommendations and Implications

"Tackling difficult problems is not the same as solving them."

J. E. Koppich
Rochester: The Rocky Road to Reform

Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to draw together the findings, reflections, interpretations, and conclusions of this study and discuss their meaning and significance from both a practical and a theoretical sense. It is an opportunity to explore the 'so what' of the research and generate some alternatives for future direction and change.

Overview of the Study

In summary, Chapter I presented the significance of the research and the roots from which the research questions grew. Chapter II set down a conceptual framework which facilitated the development of a logical design from which the study proceeded. Chapter III presented evidence of previous studies about marginal teaching performance that determined areas of focus for examining the perspectives of teachers. Chapter IV presented the research methodologies employed in the study. In reporting the data, Chapter V offered evidence that elementary teachers in Alberta schools perceived teaching to be far more an Art or a Profession than a Technology. Findings also indicated that variations in teacher support for administrative responses to marginal teaching exist formulated on teachers' perceptions of culpability. Lastly, reflections, discussion and conclusions formed the basis for Chapter VI.

Purposes.

Primary purposes of this study were:

1. To develop an understanding of the impact of marginal teaching on students and schools as a workplace as perceived by teachers.
2. To provide information for developing administrative and collegial practices which reflect effective responses to marginal performance and improve the quality of teaching in Alberta schools.
3. To expand the theoretical basis of teacher supervision and evaluation focusing on marginal teaching performance.
4. To explore the knowing found in the metanarrative, 'everyone knows what marginal teaching is,' from the perspective of teachers.

Research question.

The research question was stated as:

> What are the experiences and perceptions of teachers when working with professional colleagues whose teaching performance is perceived to be marginal?

Related sub-questions were:

1. What do teachers think administrators should be doing about marginal teaching?
2. How do teachers' perceptions of supervision and evaluation affect support for practices employed by administrators as they work with marginal teachers?
3. What administrator' responses to marginal teaching are teachers aware of?
4. What are teachers' perceptions of culpability?
5. What are teachers' perceptions regarding the collegial practice of mentorship when implemented to address marginal teaching?

6. What are teachers' perceptions regarding the collegial practice of peer coaching when implemented to address marginal teaching?

7. What are teachers' perceptions of the impact of marginal teaching on schools as a workplace?

8. What are teachers' perceptions of the social, emotional, and academic impact of marginal teaching on students?

Methodologies.

Pragmatism was established as a foundation for methodological decisions in this study. As this research was both descriptive and exploratory, mixed methodology employing both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis techniques were adopted. The basis of this ex post facto research design was survey method. A two-stage data collection plan was employed.

A cross-sectional survey of a random sample (n = 200) of teachers employed by public and separate school jurisdictions utilizing a mailed questionnaire formed the basis for the initial stage of the study. Quantitative findings from this phase allow for a description of teachers' perceptions of current impact and responses to marginal teaching performance. A second phase of the study focused on understanding the knowing found in the metanarrative, 'everyone knows what marginal teaching is.' This qualitative phase of the study consisted of semi-structured telephone interviews of a volunteer subgroup of participants (n = 10) and was designed to elicit anecdotal stories that participants felt offered meaning to the research question.

Major Findings

Understanding the infrastructure of current supervision and evaluation policies in Alberta is important to understanding the research findings. The use of an accountability model by the Alberta Department of Learning has led to common knowledge of supervision and evaluation. It has not led to a common belief system. Therefore, in Alberta schools these practices have become a rote tap dance that is performed daily and has little impact on teaching and specifically on marginal teaching. In Alberta, school jurisdictions are dependent on the provincial government as the largest single source of operating revenue. This dependency has created an opportunity for conflict.

A paradigm war does exist. It exists between the teachers that perceive education to be far more an Art or a Profession and the bureaucrats that perceive education to be more a Technology. Summative components of supervision and evaluation policy have become direct control mechanisms for teaching. Formative components of this policy reflect a compromise between the controlling bureaucracy and current research evidence in the field of supervision and evaluation that has called for recognition of the vital component of professional growth. Meanwhile the pervasive implementation of compensatory and covert disciplinary responses has placed teachers and teaching in an atmosphere where continual juggling to absorb the negative impact of marginal teaching is the common practice in Alberta schools.

Moving away from this quagmire of compensatory and covert disciplinary responses to marginal teaching performance in any direction takes political and cultural support. Recent changes in the provincially mandated supervision and evaluation policy outline a structure for addressing questionable teaching practices. But without a climate of support and enabling resources, will administrators be in a position to implement these guidelines? This study examined the issue of support from the perspective of teacher colleagues. Teachers indicated that three types of marginal teaching exist. I have dubbed these categories of marginal teaching: Flotsam, Jetsam, and Club Med. For the first two of these types of practice, support for administrative responses by teachers came from an assistance frame while for the third type, findings were inconclusive in determining a trend in teacher support for administrative responses. This does not mean to imply that teachers would not support administrative action in responding to marginal teaching of the Club Med type. On the contrary, it does indicate that support from colleagues will be diverse which may hamper administrator responses if support is considered to be an important enabling resource by principals.

A third area of concentration for this research was that of impact of marginal teaching performance. This impact was examined in two contexts: impact on students, and impact on schools as a workplace. Findings indicated a perception by elementary teachers of a negative impact of marginal teaching on students that permeated the school setting. Teachers also indicated negative effects on their classrooms. These perceptions raised the issue of moral accountability for teachers. The challenge to change is a search for a balance between too much and too little structure.

Recommendations

The issue of nonresponse bias in this study does not support generalizability of statistical findings and limits the extent to which quantitative findings can be generalized from the research sample to the defined population. With this in mind, the following recommendations for practice and theory are put forward based on the findings and conclusions of the study.

1. The tolerance of marginal teaching through compensatory and covert disciplinary actions should be discarded. Despite diverse and distinct backgrounds, professional contexts, and worldviews of the teachers in this s[illegible] these teachers were united in knowing that marginal teaching is not 'how it should be to be with children.' They spoke compellingly and with a moral voice. Therefore, these opportunistic strategies implemented in response to marginal teaching must be discontinued.

2. Instead, responses that focus on formative development of individual teachers and normative growth of the school as a community of learners will do much to reduce the negative impact of marginal teaching on students and schools as a workplace. In the cases of Flotsam and Jetsam marginal teaching performance, actions that achieve long term results should be implemented. Peer coaching programs may do much to improve teaching in situations where Flotsam is evident. Mentorship programs may do much to improve teaching where Jetsam is evident. A recommendation of this study is that educators work in collaboration to remove barriers to formative and normative responses to marginal teaching and seek out enabling resources.

In cases of Flotsam, teachers perceived that they themselves were culpable and therefore were responsible for change. In this form of marginality, professional reflective practices of teachers should be implemented on an ongoing basis. In cases of Jetsam, teachers perceived that there was a combined culpability between the bureaucratic system of education in Alberta, administrators, and teachers. In this form of marginality, formative and normative responses and systemic revision that recognizes the impact of externally mandated change on teaching and addresses this through the change process and the distribution of enabling resources should be implemented. Thirdly, in cases of Club Med marginal teaching, teachers perceived that the individual teacher was responsible. In this form of marginality, administrators should implement a variety of practices that would effectively eliminate Club Med marginal teaching despite a possible lack of support from colleagues arising from the conflict between rationality and fairness.

3. In order to support the implementation of formative and normative strategies, development and implementation of knowledge, skills, and training for supervisors/evaluators is recommended. Until administrators have a clear understanding of alternative practices, it is unlikely they will be in a position to implement these.

4. In developing a culture in which marginality can be addressed, it is recommended that teachers and administrators work collaboratively and collectively to develop a sense of community with shared authority. Within this framework, all educators must make a commitment to work as professionals in professional environments; all educators must make a commitment to care.

5. Since each school context is unique and encompasses diverse communities of learners, policies and practices that are flexible are needed. It is recommended that a balance be sought among bureaucratic accountability, professional accountability, and moral accountability. Further, a balance should be sought between the policies and practices which reflect a nature of education as seen through the paradigms of Teaching as a Technology, Teaching as an Art, and Teaching as a Profession. In order to address these dilemmas, divergent rather than convergent thinking will be necessary.

Implications for Future Study

In research, there is always the path that wasn't explored; the direction the researcher turned away from. Hope thrives because there are others who are driven by the purpose and passion to explore. There is so much yet to understand, yet to know. In respect to this study, the most urgent of these are:

1. During Phase I of the study, despite high correlation between factors as indicated by Alpha levels, the amount of variance accounted for by the independent variables was low, ranging from 9 % to 18 % for the five regression equations. This suggests a re-examination of data collection tools and procedures in Phase I. Possibilities are that the validity of the measuring tool was questionable and that it was not collecting reliable data. Were the questions or types of questions appropriate? The degree by which results clearly measured what they were intended to reflect was challenged.

A second possibility was that, due to the self-reporting nature of the mailed survey, respondents might reflect unreliable information through limited recall or the desire to report ideal situations as opposed to real situations. The sensitive nature of the study might have resulted in invalid findings due to evaluation apprehension with respondents hesitant to report information that might be viewed negatively. It is therefore recommended that a replica study take place that incorporates strategies such as 'lie' questions scattered throughout the survey to determine if respondents are answering questions honestly, and/or immediate interviewing of respondents to determine if responses are consistent over a short interval of time.

2. An evaluation of the implementation of the 'teacher-in-difficulty tract' of the provincial supervision and evaluation policy be undertaken to determine the scope of

implementation, effects of implementation, what's working, and what's not as it specifically relates to marginal teaching performance.

3. The findings of this study in the area of the paradigms that guide the nature of supervision and evaluation are intriguing. Is the trend of elementary teachers employed in public and separate schools throughout Alberta to act from a platform that perceives teaching to be more of an Art or a Profession than a Technology distinct to this particular group of teachers or is this more widespread? Did specific characteristics of this group lead to these findings? How might other areas of education be influenced or affected by a domination of these alternate belief systems? Further study focusing on the metanarrative that describes the domination of the Teaching as Technology metaphor in the bureaucratic education system in Alberta is warranted.

4. Also, teasing the corners of this researcher's mind are questions about the widespread use of compensatory and covert disciplinary responses to marginal teaching despite the lack of support for these practices: How has this taken root in our schools? What underlying systemic changes are necessary for change?

5. Lastly, replica studies employing random samples of elementary teachers with particular attention on external validity and the issue of nonresponse bias that arose in this study may lead to increased understanding of the impact these concerns had on findings. Also, replica studies employing random samples of Junior High and High School teachers to allow for comparisons across grade levels might reveal additional insights.

Summation

Had this research begun by looking for definitive answers, by now the reader and researcher alike would be greatly disappointed, but in living between hope and doubt during the course of this research, guiding principles for action emerged with commitment as the key. Previous studies have shown that there are no known evaluation criteria that will result in clear identification of marginal teaching. Previous research has also shown that despite this lack of scientific evidence the professional judgement of principals guides them in knowing when they are working with marginal teaching. This current study listens to the voices of teachers. Findings indicated that they too know marginal teaching through their knowledge of the art of teaching and their professional judgement.

The positivistic paradigm that perceives teaching to be a technology and the interpretivistic paradigm that perceives teaching to be an art are both based on assumptions of the individualistic nature of teaching. Supervision and evaluation activities, such as criteria based performance evaluation, mentoring, and peer coaching, that can be linked to these two metaphors describe practices that are one-on-one experiences. Darling-Hammond (1990) stated, "Teacher evaluation can be a routine, pro forma activity with little utility for shaping what goes on in schools, or it can be an important vehicle for communicating organizational and professional norms and for stimulating improvement" (p. 137). Current practices in Alberta schools have led to the isolationism of teaching and reflect an infrastructure and cultural climate in schools that is neither effective from an bureaucratic accountability stance nor from a professional growth and development outlook in implementing administrative responses to marginal teaching.

Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) perceived that the negative results of professional isolationism were (a) limiting access to new ideas and better solutions, (b) driving stress inward to fester and accumulate, (c) failing to recognize praise and success, and (d) permitting "incompetence to exist and persist to the detriment of students, colleagues, and the teachers themselves" (p. 5). As teachers continue to work in a climate of isolationism, they will continue to see barriers to developing the collegial professional relationships that are vital for addressing marginal teaching. Ashton and Webb (1986) argued that:

> The organizational function of insularity is to decrease institutional disruption when teachers are absent, resign, transfer to another school, or take a leave of absence. If teachers are self-sufficient and work independently, no teacher or group of teachers will ever become indispensable to the smooth operation of the school. Each teacher becomes a unit unto himself or herself and all units are functionally independent and, within specialities, interchangeable. The damage inflicted by all but the most grossly incompetent teachers is suffered by students but does not have an immediate or obvious impact on the day-to-day operation of the school. Thus a school can run smoothly even though it has a number of poor teachers on staff. (pp. 47-48)

Schools with a sense of community are not conflict free but neither are they the battlegrounds of isolationism and individualism. They are schools with a shared professional knowledge of a common purpose and an understanding of members towards how they are contributing to this. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) coined the term Supervision II that envisioned uniting professional accountability and moral accountability to create school cultures that reflect professional growth through mutual responsibility and commitment of shareholders. Professional accountability and moral accountability are linked by the internalized partnership of contextual norms and values. As Nias (1999) stated, "Appropriate collegial relations provide teachers with a moral reference group and with a social environment" (p. 223). This model sees a shift from product based evaluation to process based supervision. Yet, despite this theoretical understanding of the link between moral accountability and supervision, performance based evaluation will continue to dominate education as long as the infrastructure and culture supporting this exist. Systemic change is hampered by the domination of the technological belief system held by the current bureaucratic system in Alberta.

Recognition and employment of effective responses to marginal teaching is a fundamental issue in the supervision and evaluation of educational personnel. The significance of this study lies in the faces, the hearts, and the minds of the students. The need to understand marginal teaching is the need to understand what is good and not good for children. As this exploration began, Aoki's caution that "to believe that there is an essence of teaching, you are already caught in modernity" (lecture notes, July 9, 1998) haunted the adventure. Could the knowing be understood and could this understanding be communicated? Put simplistically, the key to the first of these dilemmas is sometimes *by* some people, the key to the second is sometimes *to* some people.

Schooling is more than teaching and learning. It is a pedagogical experience. This study has shown that attitude is key to effective responses to marginal teaching. Teachers perceive that an attitude of caring is necessary to enrich the lives of students as they travel through learning. When they look back on school, it will be the experience students will remember and that will have a lasting impression on their future. Marginal teaching mars that experience.

The attitude of caring can be lost. Flotsam teachers are guided by a sense of moral accountability. Jetsam teachers are mired down by overload. Club Med teachers have lost their sense of caring for others. But, it is not only the teachers exhibiting marginal performance that need to examine moral conduct. This study has also shown the need for support for responses to marginal teachers. This can come only from those closest to the front lines. Colleagues and administrators that work along side these teachers must look to work with them. Teachers do not support the use of compensatory and covert disciplinary responses, and they are fearful of the abuse of summative and overt disciplinary responses. Formative responses and normative responses warrant a stronger place in the field of supervision and evaluation, but more-so moral accountability demands that its voice be heard.

The original point of difficulty in conceptualizing marginal teaching
lies not in finding new ideas and recognizing new possibilities
but in escaping from the old ones. It is

. . . as subtle as hope

as complex as doubt . . .

References

Alberta Education. (1984a). Program policy manual. Edmonton, AB: Author.

Alberta Education. (1984b). Program of studies for elementary schools. Edmonton, AB: Author.

Alberta Education. (1997). Accountability in education: Teacher growth, supervision and evaluation. Ministerial Order (#016/97). Edmonton, AB: Author.

Alberta Education. (n.d.). An integrated framework to enhance the quality of teaching in Alberta: A policy position paper. Edmonton, AB: Author.

Alberta Learning. (1998). Teacher growth, supervision and evaluation policy. (Policy 2.1.5). Edmonton, AB: Author.

Alberta Teachers' Association. (1999). Mentorship program: A model project. (Research Monograph No. 39). Edmonton, AB: Author.

Anderson, G. (1998). Fundamentals of educational research. (2nd ed.). Bristol, PA: Falmer Press.

Anderson, J. C. (1991). Dealing with the marginal teacher. Paper presented at CAPSULE '91, annual meeting of the Canadian Association for the Practical Study of Law in Education,Toronto, ON.

Aoki, T. (1992). Teachers narrating/narrative teaching: Pac rim experiences. Victoria, BC: Printer for British Columbia.

Ashton, P. T., & Webb, R. B. (1986). Making a difference: Teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement. New York: Longman.

Baker, K. (1998). Magic bullets, slate, and Stradivarius: Analogies, research, and policy making. Phi Delta Kappan, 79(5), 402-405.

Barber, L. W. (1990). Self-assessment. In J. Millman & L. Darling-Hammond (Eds.), The new handbook of teacher evaluation: Assessing elementary and secondary school teachers (pp. 216-228). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Barth, R. S. (1991). Improving schools from within. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Biddle, B. J., & Anderson, D. S. (1986). Theory, methods, knowledge, and research on teaching. In B. J. Biddle & D. S. Anderson (Eds.), Handbook of research on teaching (pp. 230-252). New York: MacMillan.

Black, S. (1993). How teachers are reshaping evaluation procedures. Educational Leadership, 51(2), 38-42.

Blase, J., & Blase, J. (1998). Handbook of instructional leadership: How really good principals promote teaching and learning. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1982). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Borg, W. R., & Gall, M. D. (1989). Educational research: An introduction. (5th ed.). New York: Longman.

Bosetti, L. (1996). Teacher evaluation as pedagogic opportunity: A case for portfolio assessment. The Canadian Administrator, 35(8), 1-12.

Brandt, R. (1996). On a new direction for teacher evaluation: A conversation with Tom McGreal. Educational Leadership, 53(6), 30-33.

Bridges, E. M. (1985). It's time to get tough with the turkeys: Managing the incompetent teacher--what can principals do? NASSP Bulletin, 69(479), 21.

Bridges, E. M. (1990). Evaluation for tenure and dismissal. In J. Millman & L. Darling-Hammond (Eds.), The new handbook of teacher evaluation: Assessing elementary and secondary school teachers (pp. 147-157). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Bridges, E. M. (1992). The incompetent teacher: The challenge and the response. Philadelphia, PA: Taylor and Francis.

Brieschke, P. A. (1986a). Managing teachers in complex urban school systems. Urban Review, 21(3), 331.

Brieschke, P. A. (1986b). The administrative role in teacher competency. Urban Review, 21(2), 237-251.

Burgess, R. G. (Ed.). (1985). Issues in educational research: Qualitative methods. Philadelphia, PA: Falmer Press.

Caley, M. E. (1996). The principal's role in the termination of a teacher. Unpublished masters project, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.

Checkley, K. (1996). Teacher portfolios: Tools for improving teaching and learning. Education Update Newsletter, 38(8), 1-6.

Cogan, M. L. (1973). Clinical supervision. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.

Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences. (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Council of Ministers of Education, Canada. (1999). Education indicators in Canada. [On-line]. Available: http://www.cmec.ca/stats/Indicators3.pdf.

da Costa, J. L., & Riordan, G. P. (1997). Teacher efficacy and trust in supervisory relationships. The Canadian Administrator, 36(6), 1-11.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1989). Accountability for professional practice. Teachers College Record, 91(1), 59-80.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1990). Teacher evaluation in the organizational context. In J. V. Mitchell, Jr., S. L. Wise & B. S. Plake (Eds.), Assessment of teaching: Purposes, practices, and implications for the profession (pp. 137-182). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Darling-Hammond, L., & McLaughlin, M. W. (1995). Policies that support professional development in an era of reform. Phi Delta Kappan, 76(8), 597-604.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Millman, J. (1990). The new handbook of teacher evaluation: Assessing elementary and secondary school teachers. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Darling-Hammond, L., Wise, A. E., & Klein, S. P. (1995). A license to teach: Building a profession for the 21st-century schools. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Duffy, F. M. (1997). Supervising schooling, not teachers. Educational Leadership, 54(8), 78-83.

Duncan, A. N. (1984). An assessment of teacher evaluation practices in Alberta. Edmonton, AB: Alberta Education.

Edwards, M. A. (1995). Growth is the name of the game. Educational Leadership, 52(6), 72-74.

Einstein, A. (1936/1996a). On education. In A. Einstein, Out of my later years (pp. 29-38). New York: Random House.

Einstein, A. (1939/1996b). Science and religion. In A. Einstein, Out of my later years (pp.29-38). New York: Random House.

Fadiman, C. (ed.) (1985). The little, brown book of anecdotes. Boston, MA: Little, Brown.

Fenton, R., Stofflet, F., Straugh, T., & Durant, M. (1989). The effects of three models of teacher supervision: Co-operative, supervisor controller, and minimal. Report prepared for Division A of AERA, Anchorage School District Assessment, Anchorage, AK.

Fiedler, F. E. (1967). A theory of leadership effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Fowler, F. J., Jr. (1990). Survey research methods. Newbury, CA: Sage.

Freiberg, M., Zbikowski, J., & Ganser, T. (1997). Promoting mid-career growth through mentoring. Journal of Staff Development, 18 (2), 52-54.

Fullan, M. (1999). Change forces: The sequel. Philadelphia, PA: Falmer Press.

Fullan, M., & Hargreaves, A. (1992). What's worth fighting for? Working together for your school. Toronto, ON: Ontario Public School Teachers' Federation.

Gabriel, Y. (1998). The use of stories. In G. Symon & C. Cassell, Qualitative methods and analysis in organizational research: A practical guide (pp. 135-160). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Gage, N. L. (1989). The paradigm wars and their aftermath. Educational Researcher, 18(7), 4-10.

Gall, J. P., Gall, M. D., & Borg, W. R. (1999). Applying educational research: A practical guide. (4th ed.). New York: Longman.

Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., & Gall, J. P. (1996). Educational research: An introduction. (6th ed.). White Plains, NY: Longman.

Garman, N. B. (1990). Theories embedded in the events of clinical supervision: A hermeneutic approach. Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 5(3), 201-213.

Garubo, R. C., & Rothstein, S. W. (1998). Supportive supervision in schools. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

Giroux, H. A. (1991). Towards a post-modern pedagogy. In H. A. Giroux (Ed.), Post-modernism, feminism, and cultural politics (pp. 45-55). Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Gitlin, A. (1990). Understanding teaching dialogically. Teachers College Record, 91(4), 537-563.

Glass, G. V. (1990). Using student test scores to evaluate teachers. In J. Millman & L. Darling-Hammond (Eds.), The new handbook of teacher evaluation: Assessing elementary and secondary school teachers (pp. 229-240). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Gleave, D. (1997). Bifocals for teacher development and appraisal. Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 12(3), 269-281.

Glickman, C. D., Gordon, S. P., & Ross-Gordon, J. M. (1997). Supervision of instruction: A developmental approach. (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Gogowich, G. M. J. (1992). The principal's role in evaluation. Unpublished masters project, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.

Goldhammer, R. (1969). Clinical supervison: Special methods for the supervising of procedures. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Goldsberry, L. F. (1984). The realities of clinical supervision: Polaroid snapshot or Star Wars movie? Educational Leadership, 43(7), 12-15.

Good, T. L., & Mulryan, C. (1990). Teacher ratings: A call for teacher control and self-evaluation. In J. Millman & L. Darling-Hammond (Eds.), The new handbook of teacher evaluation: Assessing elementary and secondary school teachers (pp. 191-215). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Gordon, B. G. (1992). Making clinical supervision a reality: Steps toward implementation. NASSP Bulletin, 76 (542), 12-15.

Gordon, S. P. (1997). Has the field of supervision evolved to the point that it should be called something else? In J. Glanz & R. F. Neville (Eds.), Educational supervision: Perspectives, issues, and controversies (pp. 114-123). Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon.

Greene, M. (1989). The question of standards. Teachers College Record, 91(1), 9-14.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1989). Fourth generation evaluation. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Harris, B. M. (1985). Supervisory behaviour in education. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Haughey, M., Townsend, D., O'Reilly, R., & Ratsoy, E. (1993). Toward teacher growth: A study of the impact of Alberta's teacher evaluation policy. Report prepared for the Alberta Department of Education. Edmonton, AB: University of Alberta.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1988). Management of organizational behaviour: Utilizing human resources. (5th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Hoyle, J. R. (1990). Teaching assessment: The administrator's perspective. In J. V. Mitchell, Jr., S. L. Wise & B. S. Plake (Eds.), Assessment of teaching: Purposes, practices, and implications for the profession (pp. 307-328). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Huberman, A. M., & Miles, M. B. (1994). Data management and analysis methods. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), Handbook of qualitative research (pp. 428-444). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hyun, E., & Marshall, J. D. (1996). Inquiry-oriented reflective supervision for developmentally and culturally appropriate practice. Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 11(20) 127-144.

Jackson, W. (1988). Research methods: Rules for survey design and analysis. Scarborough, ON: Prentice-Hall.

Jardine, D. W. (1992). Reflections on education, hermeneutics, and ambiguity: Hermeneutics as a restoring of life to its original difficulty. In W. F. Pinar & W. M. Reynolds (Eds.), Understanding curriculum as phenomenological and deconstructed text (pp. 116-130). New York: Teachers College Press.

Jensen, M. C. (1989). Leading the instructional staff. In S. C. Smith & P. K. Piele (Eds.), School leadership: Handbook for excellence (pp. 225-252). Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.

Joyce, B., & Showers, B. (1995). Student achievement through staff development: Fundamentals of school renewal. New York, NY: Longman.

Kapos, M. (Ed.). (1991). The impressionists: A retrospective. London: Hugh Lauter Levin Associates.

Kaye, E. B. (1996). Supervision and evaluation of marginal teaching performance. Unpublished masters project, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.

Kurmey, W. (1996). Teachers' perceptions important for effective supervision. ATA Magazine, 76(3), 3-8.

Kvale, S. (1996). Inter views: An introduction to qualitative research interviewing. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Levine, S. L. (1989). Promoting adult growth in schools: The promise of professional development. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Lewis, L. (1999). Teacher quality: A report on the preparation and qualifications of public school teachers. Washington, DC: Department of Education.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). Naturalistic inquiry. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

MacLean, R. (1992). Teachers' careers and promotion patterns: A sociological analysis. London, UK: Falmer Press.

Mangione, T. W. (1995). Mail surveys: Improving the quality. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Maynes, B., Knight, D., McIntosh, G., & Umpleby, S. (1995). Lessons from exemplary practices of teacher evaluation. The Canadian Administrator, 34(7), 1-12.

McKernan, J. (1996). Curriculum action research: A handbook of methods and resources for the reflective practitioner. (2nd ed.). London, UK: Kogan Page.

McLaughlin, M. W., & Pfeifer, R. S. (1988). Teacher evaluation: Improvement, accountability, and effective learning. New York: Teachers College Press.

Medley, D. M. (1990). Improving teaching through the assessment process. In J. V. Mitchell, Jr., S. L. Wise & B. S. Plake (Eds.), Assessment of teaching: Purposes, practices, and implications for the profession (pp. 37-76). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Miller, G. (1999). Teacher evaluation: A literature review. Unpublished report, University of Lethbridge at Lethbridge, AB.

Natriello, G. (1990). Intended and unintended consequences: Purposes and effects of teacher evaluation. In J. Millman & L. Darling-Hammond (Eds.), The new handbook of teacher evaluation: Assessing elementary and secondary school teachers (pp. 35-45). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Nias, J. (1999). Teachers' moral purposes: Stress, vulnerability, and strength. In R. Vandenberghe & A. M. Huberman (Eds.), Understanding and preventing teacher burnout (pp. 223-237). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Oppenheim, C. (1994). Saving face in teacher evaluation. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Calgary, Calgary, AB.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). Qualitative evaluation and research methods. (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Peterson, P. L. (1998). Why do educational research? Rethinking our roles and identities, our texts and contexts. Educational Researcher, 27(3), 4-10.

Phillips, W. (1994). The forced resignation of teachers. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.

Plumb, D. (1994). Critical adult education in postmodern times. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.

Popham, W. J. (1990). Face validity: Siren song for teacher-testers. In J. V. Mitchell, Jr., S. L. Wise & B. S. Plake (Eds.), Assessment of teaching: Purposes, practices, and implications for the profession (pp. 1-14). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Reichardt, C. S., & Rallis, S. F. (1994). Qualitative and quantitative inquiries are not incompatible: A call for a new partnership. In C. S. Reichardt & S. F. Rallis (Eds.), The qualitative-quantitative debate: New perspectives (pp. 85-92). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Rooney, J. (1993). Teacher evaluation: No more 'super'vision. Educational Leadership, 51(2), 43-44.

Scarbrough, E., & Tanenbaum, E. (Eds.). (1998). Research strategies in the social sciences: A guide to new approaches. New York: Oxford University Press.

Schön, D. (1983). The reflective practitioner. New York: Basic Books.

School Act (1994), Edmonton, AB: Government of Alberta.

Searfoss, L. W., & Enz, B. J. (1996). Can teacher evaluation reflect holistic instruction? Educational Leadership, 53(6), 38-41.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1982). Toward a theory of supervisory practice: Integrating scientific, clinical, and artistic views. In T. J. Sergiovanni (Ed.), Supervision of teaching (pp. 69-84). Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1997). How can we move toward a community theory of supervison? In J. Glanz & R. F. Neville, Educational supervision: Perspectives, issues, and controversies (pp. 263-284). Norwood, MA: Christopher-Gordon.

Sergiovanni, T. J., & Starratt, R. J. (1988). Supervision: Human perspectives. (4th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Sergiovanni, T. J., & Starratt, R. J. (1993). Supervision: A redefinition. (5th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Shafer, P. (1990). Appraisal: The teachers' perspective. In J. V. Mitchell, Jr., S. L. Wise & B. S. Plake (Eds.), Assessment of teaching: Purposes, practices, and implications for the profession (pp. 329-346). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Siens, C. M., & Ebmeier, H. (1996). Developmental supervision and the reflective thinking of teachers. Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 11(4), 299-319.

Simon, J. L. (1978). Basic research methods in social sciences: The art of empirical investigation. (2nd ed.). New York: Random House.

Smyth, J. (1985). Developing a critical practice of clinical supervision. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 17(1), 1-15.

Stiggins, R. S. (1988). The case for changing teacher evaluation to promote school improvement. In E. S. Hickcox, S. B. Lawton, K. A. Leithwood & D. F. Musella (Eds.), Making a difference through performance appraisal (pp.141-157). Toronto, ON: OISE Press.

Stodolsky, S. S. (1990). Classroom observation. In J. Millan & L. Darling-Hammond (Eds.), The new handbook of teacher evaluation: Assessing elementary and secondary school teachers (pp. 175-190). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Sudman, S., & Bradburn, N. M. (1981). Response effects in surveys: A review and synthesis. Chicago, IL: Aldine Publishing.

Sullivan, S., & Glanz, J. (2000). Supervision that improves teaching: Strategies and techniques. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Symon, G., & Cassell, C. (1998). Qualitative methods and analysis in organizational research: A practical guide. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantiative approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Teachers in Alberta. (1995). Teacher Certification and Development, Alberta Learning. [On-line] Available: http://www.learning.gov.ab.ca/parents/back2school/teachers.html.

Tuckman, B. W. (1994). Conducting educational research. (4th ed.). Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace.

van Manen, M. (1990). Researching lived experience: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy. London, ON: Althouse Press.

van Manen, M. (1991). The tact of teaching: The meaning of pedagogical thoughtfulness. London, ON: Althouse Press.

Van Wagenen, L., & Hibbard, K. M. (1998). Building teacher portfolios. Educational Leadership, 55(5), 26-29.

Vockell, E. L., & Asher, J. W. (1995). Educational research. (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Webster's universal college dictionary. (1997). New York: Gramercy Books.

Wheatley, M. (1997). Goodbye command and control. Leader to Leader, Summer 1997, 21-28.

Wise, A. E., Darling-Hammond, L., Berry, B., & Berliner, D. (1987). Effective teacher selection from recruitment to retention. Santa Monica, CA: Rand.

Wise, A. E., & Gendler, T. (1990). Governance issues in the evaluation of elementary and secondary school teachers. In J. Millman & L. Darling-Hammond (Eds.), The new handbook of teacher evaluation: Assessing elementary and secondary school teachers (pp. 374-389). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Wolf, K. (1996). Developing an effective teaching portfolio. Educational Leadership, 63(6), 34-37.

Zahorik, J. A. (1992). Perspectives and imperatives: Good teaching and supervision. Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 7(4), 393-404.

Appendix A

Descriptors of Knowledge, Skills and Attributes Related to Permanent Certification

> The following descriptors comprise a repertoire of selected knowledge, skills and attributes from which teachers who hold a Permanent Professional Certificate should be able to draw, as situations warrant, in order to meet the Teaching Quality Standard. Teachers, staffs, supervisors and evaluators should use the descriptors to guide professional development, supervision, evaluation and remediation strategies in order that teachers can meet the Teaching Quality Standard consistently throughout their careers.

1. Teachers' application of pedagogical knowledge skills, and attributes is based in their ongoing analysis of contextual variables.
2. Teachers understand the legislated, moral and ethical framework within which they work.
3. Teachers understand the subject disciplines they teach.
4. Teachers know there are many approaches to teaching and learning.
5. Teachers engage in a range of planning activities.
6. Teachers create and maintain environments that are conducive to student learning.
7. Teachers translate curriculum content and objectives into meaningful learning activities.
8. Teachers apply a variety of technologies to meet students' learning needs.
9. Teachers gather and use information about students' learning needs and progress.
10. Teachers establish and maintain partnerships among school, home and community, and within their own schools.
11. Teachers are career-long learners.

(Excerpt from Ministerial Order (#016/97), Section 3, Appendix to the School Act, 1994)

Appendix B

Research Questionnaire

Please begin by choosing the CHARITY to which you would like your Toonie sent:

☐ **(01) Children's Wish Foundation of Canada**
☐ **(02) Salvation Army**
☐ **(03) Canadian Cancer Society**

Mutual Meaning.

Defining Marginal Teaching is difficult, as it is a grey area that is not readily contained within precise boundaries. For the purposes of this study, marginal teaching is the level of professional teaching which cannot be documented as incompetence but borders on incompetence and which necessitates a perceived need for change and/or improvement. Marginal teaching is competent teaching but it is undesirable and questionable.

Section A: Impact on Students.

The impact of marginal teaching on students is an area that is not well understood. **Circle ONE number in each question** to indicate the degree by which you feel marginal teaching affects students in the following areas:

	Very Negatively	Negatively	No Impact	Positively	Very Positively
01. Attitude toward school	1	2	3	4	5
02. Attitude toward learning	1	2	3	4	5
03. Self concept as a student	1	2	3	4	5
04. School attendance	1	2	3	4	5
05. Motivation to learn	1	2	3	4	5
06. Compliance with school expectations	1	2	3	4	5
07. School behaviour outside of the classroom	1	2	3	4	5
08. Classroom behaviours	1	2	3	4	5
09. Interaction with peers at school	1	2	3	4	5
10. Interaction with other teachers	1	2	3	4	5
11. Academic achievement relative to grade	1	2	3	4	5
12. Marks on teacher assignments	1	2	3	4	5
13. Marks on standardized tests	1	2	3	4	5
14. Satisfactory completion of grades/courses	1	2	3	4	5
15. Successful completion of homework assignments	1	2	3	4	5
16. Academic effort	1	2	3	4	5

Section B: Schools as a Workplace.

For each of the following items, **circle ONE number** to indicate the ways in which you think marginal teaching has an impact on your job or workplace.

		Greatly Decreases	Decreases	No Impact	Increases	Greatly Increases
17.	Your workload outside the classroom	1	2	3	4	5
18.	The placement of students with special needs in your class	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Parent complaints	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Your instructional course load	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Your class size	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Your time spent on school activities	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Your work commitment	5	4	3	2	1
24.	Parent volunteerism	5	4	3	2	1
25.	Congeniality	5	4	3	2	1
26.	Collegiality	5	4	3	2	1
27.	Your motivation	5	4	3	2	1
28.	Your job satisfaction	5	4	3	2	1

Section C: What is Happening?

Items below may be responses to marginal teaching. Are you aware of any of the following occurring?
Circle 1 for "YES" or 2 for "NO"

		YES	NO
29.	Transferring the teacher to another school	1	2
30.	Minimising class size of the marginal teacher	1	2
31.	Minimising placement of special needs students	1	2
32.	Reassignment within the school	1	2
33.	Informing the teacher of unacceptable practices	1	2
34.	Offering professional development activities	1	2
35.	Offering assistance from the principal	1	2
36.	Offering assistance from consultants	1	2
37.	Other teachers offering assistance	1	2
38.	Other teachers offering opportunities to observe	1	2
39.	Other teachers offering professional support	1	2
40.	Purposeful involvement in collegial discussion	1	2
41.	Principals directing the teacher to change	1	2
42.	Completing a formal evaluation	1	2
43.	Recommending dismissal	1	2
44.	Counselling into early retirement	1	2
45.	Counselling into resignation	1	2
46.	Counselling onto long term disability	1	2

Section D: Mentorship

Offering assistance is one response to marginal teaching. This assistance might be through a Mentorship program. A mentor is a teacher entrusted with the tutoring, education and/or guidance of another teacher. **Check ONE answer** to indicate if you think mentoring a marginal teacher would be effective at:

47. Improving the marginal teacher's knowledge of curriculum?
☐ (1) Yes
☐ (2) No
48. Improving the marginal teacher's instructional skills?
☐ (1) Yes
☐ (2) No
49. Improving the marginal teacher's attributes related to teaching?
☐ (1) Yes
☐ (2) No
50. Have you had formal training in Mentoring?
☐ (1) Yes
☐ (2) No
51. Would you have the time to assist as a mentor with a marginal teacher?
☐ (1) Yes
☐ (2) No
52. Would you be willing to assist as a mentor with a marginal teacher if you had the time and training?
☐ (1) Yes
☐ (2) No

Section E: What Ought to Happen?

In each of the following items, **circle ONE number** to indicate if you think these responses ought to be happening.

1=Never **2=Seldom** **3=Undecided** **4=Frequently** **5=Always**

53. Transferring the teacher to another school	1	2	3	4	5
54. Minimising class size of the marginal teacher	1	2	3	4	5
55. Minimising placement of special needs students	1	2	3	4	5
56. Reassignment within the school	1	2	3	4	5
57. Informing the teacher of unacceptable practices	1	2	3	4	5
58. Offering professional development activities	1	2	3	4	5
59. Offering assistance from the principal	1	2	3	4	5
60. Offering assistance from consultants	1	2	3	4	5
61. Other teachers offering assistance	1	2	3	4	5
62. Other teachers offering opportunities to observe	1	2	3	4	5
63. Other teachers offering professional support	1	2	3	4	5
64. Purposeful involvement in collegial discussion	1	2	3	4	5
65. Principals directing the teacher to change	1	2	3	4	5
66. Completing a formal evaluation	1	2	3	4	5
67. Recommending dismissal	1	2	3	4	5
68. Counselling into early retirement	1	2	3	4	5
69. Counselling into resignation	1	2	3	4	5
70. Counselling onto long term disability	1	2	3	4	5

Section F: Teaching Abc's. ....

In the following items, **circle ONE number** to indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each statement.

1=Strongly Disagree **2=Disagree** **3=Neutral** **4=Agree** **5=Strongly Agree**

71. Learning is a process of accumulating information.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

72. Learning is a process of accumulating skills.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

73. Students learn independently of interaction with other students.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

74. Motivation of students is competitively based.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

75. Learning is defined as an increase in student knowledge.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

76. Learning is defined as an increase in student skills.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

77. Classroom management is achieved through discipline.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

78. Thinking skills are the same across content areas.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

79. Learning skills are the same across content areas.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

80. Every student in a class should complete the same assignments.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

Section G: Teaching aBc's.

In the following items, **circle ONE number** to indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each statement.

1=Strongly Disagree **2=Disagree** **3=Neutral** **4=Agree** **5=Strongly Agree**

81. Learning involves interactions between teachers and students.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

82. Learning involves active construction of meaning.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

83. Students' prior understandings influence learning.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

84. Learning is defined as a change in a student's thinking.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

85. Learning in co-operation is important in motivating students.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

86. Learning in co-operation is important in enhancing outcomes.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

87. Teachers must arrange for students to do the work of learning.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

88. Classroom management is achieved through negotiation.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

89. Different teaching situations require different methods.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

90. Some students should be given different assignments.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

Section H: Peer Coaching.

Another way of offering assistance is through Peer Coaching, a collegial process in which teachers work together for mutual professional development. In each of the following questions, **check ONE answer** to indicate if you think Peer Coaching with a marginal teacher would be effective at:

91. Jointly improving knowledge of curriculum?
☐(1) Yes
☐(2) No
92. Jointly improving instructional skills?
☐(1) Yes
☐(2) No
93. Jointly improving attributes related to teaching?
☐(1) Yes
☐(2) No
94. Have you had formal training in Peer Coaching?
☐(1) Yes
☐(2) No
95. Would you have the time to Peer Coach with a marginal teacher?
☐(1) Yes
☐(2) No
96. Would you be willing to Peer Coach with a marginal teacher if you had the time and training?
☐(1) Yes
☐(2) No

Section I: Culpability / Responsibility.

Given each of the factors below, which of the following four types of responses to marginal teaching do you feel is the most appropriate? Remember marginal teaching is not incompetent teaching.
Circle ONE appropriate number for each item.

1=*Negotiate:* Helping teachers realize they are having an adverse effect on students and counselling them out of teaching.
2=*Assist:* Investing time, energy, and resources into helping teachers to improve their teaching.
3=*Direct:* Directing teachers to correct specific difficulties, with a follow up to ensure this has occurred.
4=*Discipline:* Penalizing teachers through the use of sanctions such as letters of reprimand, suspension, or dismissal.

	NEGOTIATE	ASSIST	DIRECT	DISCIPLINE
97. Unusually difficult teaching assignment	1	2	3	4
98. Amount of experience with teaching assignment	1	2	3	4
99. Lack of ability of the teacher	1	2	3	4
100. Lack of effort by the teacher	1	2	3	4
101. Lack of motivation by the teacher	1	2	3	4
102. Lack of communication skills	1	2	3	4
103. Lack of flexibility by the teacher	1	2	3	4
104. Lack of ability to relate to age of students	1	2	3	4
105. Inappropriate or questionable motivation	1	2	3	4
106. Language or cultural factors	1	2	3	4
107. Not open to feedback	1	2	3	4
108. Non improvement after assistance is offered	1	2	3	4
109. Non improvement after being directed to improve	1	2	3	4
Personal disorder of the teacher such as:				
110. Alcoholism	1	2	3	4
111. Drug use	1	2	3	4
112. Illness	1	2	3	4
113. Job related stress	1	2	3	4
114. Emotional distress	1	2	3	4

Section J: Teaching abC's.

In each of the following items, **circle ONE number** to indicate the extent to which you disagree or agree with each statement.

1=Strongly Disagree **2=Disagree** **3=Neutral** **4=Agree** **5=Strongly Agree**

115. Learning involves interactions between students.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
116. Teachers behave as decision makers who take charge of teaching.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
117. Teaching decisions depend on the situation at hand.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
118. A keen understanding of subject matter is vital to teaching.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
119. Classroom management is achieved through engagement of students' interest in the subject matter.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
120. Motivation of students is intrinsic.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
121. Student assessment requires ongoing monitoring.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
122. Learning requires ongoing adjustment of teaching strategies.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
123. Unanticipated learning outcomes have merit.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree
124. Student assignments allow students some choice within a carefully planned array of options.
Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

Section K: What Should Happen?

Which of the following practices do you think should be implemented to address marginal teaching? **Check only the FIVE that you would support the most**.

125. (01) ☐ Transferring the teacher to another school.
126. (02) ☐ Minimising class size of the marginal teacher.
127. (03) ☐ Minimising placement of special needs students.
128. (04) ☐ Reassignment within the school.
129. (05) ☐ Informing the teacher of unacceptable practices.
130. (06) ☐ Offering professional development activities.
131. (07) ☐ Offering assistance from the principal.
132. (08) ☐ Offering assistance from consultants.
133. (09) ☐ Other teachers offering assistance.
134. (10) ☐ Other teachers offering opportunities to observe.
135. (11) ☐ Other teachers offering professional support.
136. (12) ☐ Purposeful involvement in collegial discussion.
137. (13) ☐ Principals directing the teacher to change.
138. (14) ☐ Completing a formal evaluation.
139. (15) ☐ Recommending dismissal.
140. (16) ☐ Counselling into early retirement.
141. (17) ☐ Counselling into resignation.
142. (18) ☐ Counselling onto long term disability.

Section L: Respondent Information.

Complete the following:

143. How many full years of teaching experience do you have?

____ number of years.

144. How many full years of post secondary education do you have?

____ number of years.

145. Approximately how many individual certificated teachers are on your current staff?

____ number of teachers

Check only ONE answer for each of the following.

146. Which instructional level comprises the majority of your current teaching assignment?
☐(1) Kindergarten to Grade 03
☐(2) Grade 04 to Grade 06

147. Your sex?
☐(1) Female
☐(2) Male

148. If you would like further opportunity to express your ideas about marginal teaching, please check YES below. If you are randomly chosen to participate in the interview portion of this study, I will telephone you in about 6 weeks.
☐ (1) Yes
☐ (2) No

149. Time of day when it is best to contact you:
☐ (1) 8:00 am to 12:00 pm
☐ (2) 12:00 pm to 4:00 pm
☐ (3) 4:00 pm to 7:00 pm
☐ (4) 7:00 pm to 9:00 pm

150. Phone Number: 1 - (____) ____ - _____
☐ (1) Work
☐ (2) Home

If you wish to be included in the interview portion of this study, but prefer not to include contact information on this survey. Please check YES on question #148 and telephone me within the next week at (...) ... - .... .

Bev. Kaye.

Thank you for completing this questionnaire!
Please return in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope.

Appendix C

Interview Guide

Preamble

Hello. My name is Bev Kaye. I am a Doctoral Candidate at the University of Alberta. Recently you returned a questionnaire concerning supervision and evaluation of marginal teaching. This study has been ongoing for the last year and is nearing completion. On that questionnaire you indicated that you would be willing to discuss this topic further. Would you like to spend a few minutes doing this now?

[If YES, continue.]
[If NO, arrange for a suitable time.] DATE: _______ TIME: _______

May I have your permission to tape this interview?

[If YES, **Start tape.**]
[If NO, scribe responses.]

As a reminder, the purpose of this interview is to listen to your experiences. Your confidentiality and anonymity is assured and pseudonyms will be used throughout the research and any documents arising from it. Do you have any questions?

Warm up Questions

1. **Just to start, can you tell me a little bit of background information about your school?**
2. **How long have your been teaching there?**

Questions Significant to the Research Problem

To me, marginal teaching can't be documented as incompetence but borders on incompetence. Other people I have talked to have referred to marginal teaching as a 'grey area.' I would like to know much more about this and what you understand marginal teaching to be.

I have one major question and a few discussion items but feel free to raise any other topics that you think are important to the research.

Can you please tell me about two or three specific incidents that you feel describe marginal teaching?

INTERVIEW NOTES ON MAIN IDEAS:

Discussion

1. Conditions that led up to this incident: In the situation you described in which ________, how do you think this marginal teaching came about ?

2. 'Everyone knows': Some people have said that 'everyone knows' when they see marginal teaching, do you agree with this?
If yes ask, how do you think they 'know'?
If no, go on.

3. Causation: As you look back over your teaching experiences and you think about marginal teaching, could you identify the major reasons that explain why marginal teaching continues to exist?

4. Is there anything you would like to add?

Summing Up

Thank you very much for taking the time to talk with me.
I am beginning to understand marginal teaching as being a very complex issue.

Your interview will be transcribed. Do you wish to review and/or edit this transcription?
[If YES, obtain mailing information, thank the respondent to complete interview.]

MAILING ADDRESS:

____

____

[If NO, thank respondent again to complete the interview.]

NOTE: During the interview, if necessary, remind respondents of professional guidelines outlined by the Alberta Teachers' Association *Code of Professional Conduct*.

Appendix D

Statistical Power Analysis: Determination of Sample Size for Multiple Regression and Correlation Analysis

1. Significance criterion, Alpha = .05
2. Degrees of Freedom of the Numerator of the F ratio, u = 9
3. Degrees of Freedom of the Denominator of the F ratio, Trial value v = 120 Note[3]
4. Desired Power = .80 Note[4]

Computations for Case 0: (Cohen, 1988, p. 444)

$$V = N - u - 1$$

$$N = \lambda \,/\, f^2$$
$$N = \lambda\,(1 - R^2_{Y.B}) \,/\, R^2_{Y.B}$$

$R^2_{Y.B} = .13$ [for a medium effect size[5] where $f^2 = .02$]

If $v = 120$, $\lambda = 16.7$ (Cohen, 1988, p. 453, Table 9.4.2)

$$N = 16.7\,(1 - .13) \,/\, .13$$
$$N = 14.529 \,/\, .13$$
$$N = 111.76$$
Computed N = 112

Disparity between trial value of v = 120 and v = N - u - 1 = 102 is < 10 % therefore the computed value of N = 112

---

[3] Will yield an N of sufficient accuracy.

[4] Note: This allowed for ß = .20. Since Type I errors, false positive claims, were considered more serious than Type II errors, false negative claims, the general seriousness of these two kinds of errors was of the order of .20 / .05 therefore establishing that Type I errors were considered four times as serious as Type II errors.

[5] Note: $R^2 = .13$, 13 % variance of the dependent variable was attributed to the independent variables.